

**INVENTORY OF U.S. GREENHOUSE GAS EMISSIONS AND SINKS:
1990 – 2009**

APRIL 15, 2011

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For more information regarding climate change and greenhouse gas emissions, see the EPA web site at [<http://www.epa.gov/climatechange>](http://www.epa.gov/climatechange).

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Preface

The United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) prepares the official U.S. Inventory of Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks to comply with existing commitments under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). Under decision 3/CP.5 of the UNFCCC Conference of the Parties, national inventories for UNFCCC Annex I parties should be provided to the UNFCCC Secretariat each year by April 15.

In an effort to engage the public and researchers across the country, the EPA has instituted an annual public review and comment process for this document. The availability of the draft document is announced via Federal Register Notice and is posted on the EPA web site. Copies are also mailed upon request. The public comment period is generally limited to 30 days; however, comments received after the closure of the public comment period are accepted and considered for the next edition of this annual report.

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Executive Summary

An emissions inventory that identifies and quantifies a country's primary anthropogenic¹ sources and sinks of greenhouse gases is essential for addressing climate change. This inventory adheres to both (1) a comprehensive and detailed set of methodologies for estimating sources and sinks of anthropogenic greenhouse gases, and (2) a common and consistent mechanism that enables Parties to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) to compare the relative contribution of different emission sources and greenhouse gases to climate change.

In 1992, the United States signed and ratified the UNFCCC. As stated in Article 2 of the UNFCCC, “The ultimate objective of this Convention and any related legal instruments that the Conference of the Parties may adopt is to achieve, in accordance with the relevant provisions of the Convention, stabilization of greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere at a level that would prevent dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system. Such a level should be achieved within a time-frame sufficient to allow ecosystems to adapt naturally to climate change, to ensure that food production is not threatened and to enable economic development to proceed in a sustainable manner.”²

Parties to the Convention, by ratifying, “shall develop, periodically update, publish and make available...national inventories of anthropogenic emissions by sources and removals by sinks of all greenhouse gases not controlled by the Montreal Protocol, using comparable methodologies...”³ The United States views this report as an opportunity to fulfill these commitments.

This chapter summarizes the latest information on U.S. anthropogenic greenhouse gas emission trends from 1990 through 2009. To ensure that the U.S. emissions inventory is comparable to those of other UNFCCC Parties, the estimates presented here were calculated using methodologies consistent with those recommended in the Revised 1996 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997), the IPCC Good Practice Guidance and Uncertainty Management in National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2000), and the IPCC Good Practice Guidance for Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (IPCC 2003). Additionally, the U.S. emission inventory has continued to incorporate new methodologies and data from the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006). The structure of this report is consistent with the UNFCCC guidelines for inventory reporting.⁴ For most source categories, the IPCC methodologies were expanded, resulting in a more comprehensive and detailed estimate of emissions.

[BEGIN BOX]

Box ES-1: Methodological approach for estimating and reporting U.S. emissions and sinks

In following the UNFCCC requirement under Article 4.1 to develop and submit national greenhouse gas emissions inventories, the emissions and sinks presented in this report are organized by source and sink categories and calculated using internationally-accepted methods provided by the IPCC.⁵ Additionally, the calculated emissions and sinks in a given year for the U.S. are presented in a common manner in line with the UNFCCC reporting guidelines for the reporting of inventories under this international agreement.⁶ The use of consistent methods to calculate emissions and sinks by all nations providing their inventories to the UNFCCC ensures that these reports

¹ The term “anthropogenic”, in this context, refers to greenhouse gas emissions and removals that are a direct result of human activities or are the result of natural processes that have been affected by human activities (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

² Article 2 of the Framework Convention on Climate Change published by the UNEP/WMO Information Unit on Climate Change. See <<http://unfccc.int>>.

³ Article 4(1)(a) of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (also identified in Article 12). Subsequent decisions by the Conference of the Parties elaborated the role of Annex I Parties in preparing national inventories. See <<http://unfccc.int>>.

⁴ See <<http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/2006/sbsta/eng/09.pdf>>.

⁵ See <<http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/public/index.html>>.

⁶ See <http://unfccc.int/national_reports/annex_i_ghg_inventories/national_inventories_submissions/items/5270.php>.

are comparable. In this regard, U.S. emissions and sinks reported in this inventory report are comparable to emissions and sinks reported by other countries. Emissions and sinks provided in this inventory do not preclude alternative examinations, but rather this inventory report presents emissions and sinks in a common format consistent with how countries are to report inventories under the UNFCCC. The report itself follows this standardized format, and provides an explanation of the IPCC methods used to calculate emissions and sinks, and the manner in which those calculations are conducted.

[END BOX]

Background Information

Naturally occurring greenhouse gases include water vapor, carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), nitrous oxide (N₂O), and ozone (O₃). Several classes of halogenated substances that contain fluorine, chlorine, or bromine are also greenhouse gases, but they are, for the most part, solely a product of industrial activities. Chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) and hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs) are halocarbons that contain chlorine, while halocarbons that contain bromine are referred to as bromofluorocarbons (i.e., halons). As stratospheric ozone depleting substances, CFCs, HCFCs, and halons are covered under the Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer. The UNFCCC defers to this earlier international treaty. Consequently, Parties to the UNFCCC are not required to include these gases in their national greenhouse gas emission inventories.⁷ Some other fluorine-containing halogenated substances—hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs), perfluorocarbons (PFCs), and sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆)—do not deplete stratospheric ozone but are potent greenhouse gases. These latter substances are addressed by the UNFCCC and accounted for in national greenhouse gas emission inventories.

There are also several gases that do not have a direct global warming effect but indirectly affect terrestrial and/or solar radiation absorption by influencing the formation or destruction of greenhouse gases, including tropospheric and stratospheric ozone. These gases include carbon monoxide (CO), oxides of nitrogen (NO_x), and non-CH₄ volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs). Aerosols, which are extremely small particles or liquid droplets, such as those produced by sulfur dioxide (SO₂) or elemental carbon emissions, can also affect the absorptive characteristics of the atmosphere.

Although the direct greenhouse gases CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O occur naturally in the atmosphere, human activities have changed their atmospheric concentrations. From the pre-industrial era (i.e., ending about 1750) to 2005, concentrations of these greenhouse gases have increased globally by 36, 148, and 18 percent, respectively (IPCC 2007).

Beginning in the 1950s, the use of CFCs and other stratospheric ozone depleting substances (ODS) increased by nearly 10 percent per year until the mid-1980s, when international concern about ozone depletion led to the entry into force of the Montreal Protocol. Since then, the production of ODS is being phased out. In recent years, use of ODS substitutes such as HFCs and PFCs has grown as they begin to be phased in as replacements for CFCs and HCFCs. Accordingly, atmospheric concentrations of these substitutes have been growing (IPCC 2007).

Global Warming Potentials

Gases in the atmosphere can contribute to the greenhouse effect both directly and indirectly. Direct effects occur when the gas itself absorbs radiation. Indirect radiative forcing occurs when chemical transformations of the substance produce other greenhouse gases, when a gas influences the atmospheric lifetimes of other gases, and/or when a gas affects atmospheric processes that alter the radiative balance of the earth (e.g., affect cloud formation or albedo).⁸ The IPCC developed the Global Warming Potential (GWP) concept to compare the ability of each greenhouse gas to trap heat in the atmosphere relative to another gas.

⁷ Emissions estimates of CFCs, HCFCs, halons and other ozone-depleting substances are included in the annexes of the Inventory report for informational purposes.

⁸ Albedo is a measure of the Earth's reflectivity, and is defined as the fraction of the total solar radiation incident on a body that is reflected by it.

The GWP of a greenhouse gas is defined as the ratio of the time-integrated radiative forcing from the instantaneous release of 1 kilogram (kg) of a trace substance relative to that of 1 kg of a reference gas (IPCC 2001). Direct radiative effects occur when the gas itself is a greenhouse gas. The reference gas used is CO₂, and therefore GWP-weighted emissions are measured in teragrams (or million metric tons) of CO₂ equivalent (Tg CO₂ Eq.).^{9,10} All gases in this Executive Summary are presented in units of Tg CO₂ Eq.

The UNFCCC reporting guidelines for national inventories were updated in 2006,¹¹ but continue to require the use of GWPs from the IPCC Second Assessment Report (SAR) (IPCC 1996). This requirement ensures that current estimates of aggregate greenhouse gas emissions for 1990 to 2009 are consistent with estimates developed prior to the publication of the IPCC Third Assessment Report (TAR) (IPCC 2001) and the IPCC Fourth Assessment Report (AR4) (IPCC 2007). Therefore, to comply with international reporting standards under the UNFCCC, official emission estimates are reported by the United States using SAR GWP values. All estimates are provided throughout the report in both CO₂ equivalents and unweighted units. A comparison of emission values using the SAR GWPs versus the TAR and AR4 GWPs can be found in Chapter 1 and, in more detail, in Annex 6.1 of this report. The GWP values used in this report are listed below in Table ES-1.

Table ES-1: Global Warming Potentials (100-Year Time Horizon) Used in this Report

Gas	GWP
CO ₂	1
CH ₄ *	21
N ₂ O	310
HFC-23	11,700
HFC-32	650
HFC-125	2,800
HFC-134a	1,300
HFC-143a	3,800
HFC-152a	140
HFC-227ea	2,900
HFC-236fa	6,300
HFC-4310mee	1,300
CF ₄	6,500
C ₂ F ₆	9,200
C ₄ F ₁₀	7,000
C ₆ F ₁₄	7,400
SF ₆	23,900

Source: IPCC (1996)

* The CH₄ GWP includes the direct effects and those indirect effects due to the production of tropospheric ozone and stratospheric water vapor. The indirect effect due to the production of CO₂ is not included.

Global warming potentials are not provided for CO, NO_x, NMVOCs, SO₂, and aerosols because there is no agreed-upon method to estimate the contribution of gases that are short-lived in the atmosphere, spatially variable, or have only indirect effects on radiative forcing (IPCC 1996).

Recent Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks

In 2009, total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions were 6,633.2 Tg or million metric tons CO₂ Eq. While total U.S. emissions have increased by 7.3 percent from 1990 to 2009, emissions decreased from 2008 to 2009 by 6.1 percent (427.9 Tg CO₂ Eq.). This decrease was primarily due to (1) a decrease in economic output resulting in a decrease in energy consumption across all sectors; and (2) a decrease in the carbon intensity of fuels used to generate electricity due to fuel switching as the price of coal increased, and the price of natural gas decreased significantly. Since 1990, U.S. emissions have increased at an average annual rate of 0.4 percent.

⁹ Carbon comprises 12/44^{ths} of carbon dioxide by weight.

¹⁰ One teragram is equal to 10¹² grams or one million metric tons.

¹¹ See <<http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/2006/sbsta/eng/09.pdf>>.

Figure ES-1 through Figure ES-3 illustrate the overall trends in total U.S. emissions by gas, annual changes, and absolute change since 1990. Table ES-2 provides a detailed summary of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions and sinks for 1990 through 2009.

Figure ES-1: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions by Gas

Figure ES-2: Annual Percent Change in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions

Figure ES-3: Cumulative Change in Annual U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Relative to 1990

Table ES-2: Recent Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks (Tg CO₂ Eq. or million metric tons CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO₂	5,099.7	5,975.0	6,113.8	6,021.1	6,120.0	5,921.4	5,505.2
Fossil Fuel Combustion	4,738.4	5,594.8	5,753.2	5,653.1	5,756.7	5,565.9	5,209.0
Electricity Generation	1,820.8	2,296.9	2,402.1	2,346.4	2,412.8	2,360.9	2,154.0
Transportation	1,485.9	1,809.5	1,896.6	1,878.1	1,894.0	1,789.9	1,719.7
Industrial	846.5	851.1	823.1	848.2	842.0	802.9	730.4
Residential	338.3	370.7	357.9	321.5	342.4	348.2	339.2
Commercial	219.0	230.8	223.5	208.6	219.4	224.2	224.0
U.S. Territories	27.9	35.9	50.0	50.3	46.1	39.8	41.7
Non-Energy Use of Fuels	118.6	144.9	143.4	145.6	137.2	141.0	123.4
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	99.5	85.9	65.9	68.8	71.0	66.0	41.9
Natural Gas Systems	37.6	29.9	29.9	30.8	31.1	32.8	32.2
Cement Production	33.3	40.4	45.2	45.8	44.5	40.5	29.0
Incineration of Waste	8.0	11.1	12.5	12.5	12.7	12.2	12.3
Ammonia Production and Urea Consumption	16.8	16.4	12.8	12.3	14.0	11.9	11.8
Lime Production	11.5	14.1	14.4	15.1	14.6	14.3	11.2
Cropland Remaining Cropland	7.1	7.5	7.9	7.9	8.2	8.7	7.8
Limestone and Dolomite Use	5.1	5.1	6.8	8.0	7.7	6.3	7.6
Soda Ash Production and Consumption	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.1	4.1	4.3
Aluminum Production	6.8	6.1	4.1	3.8	4.3	4.5	3.0
Petrochemical Production	3.3	4.5	4.2	3.8	3.9	3.4	2.7
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.7	1.9	1.8	1.8
Titanium Dioxide Production	1.2	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.5
Ferroalloy Production	2.2	1.9	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.5
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands	1.0	1.2	1.1	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1
Phosphoric Acid Production	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.0
Zinc Production	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.0
Lead Production	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5
Petroleum Systems	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
<i>Land Use, Land-Use</i>	<i>(861.5)</i>	<i>(576.6)</i>	<i>(1,056.5)</i>	<i>(1,064.3)</i>	<i>(1,060.9)</i>	<i>(1,040.5)</i>	<i>(1,015.1)</i>

<i>Change, and Forestry (Sink)^a</i>							
<i>Biomass - Wood^b</i>	215.2	218.1	206.9	203.8	203.3	198.4	183.8
<i>International Bunker Fuels^c</i>	111.8	98.5	109.7	128.4	127.6	133.7	123.1
<i>Biomass - Ethanol^b</i>	4.2	9.4	23.0	31.0	38.9	54.8	61.2
CH₄	674.9	659.9	631.4	672.1	664.6	676.7	686.3
Natural Gas Systems	189.8	209.3	190.4	217.7	205.2	211.8	221.2
Enteric Fermentation	132.1	136.5	136.5	138.8	141.0	140.6	139.8
Landfills	147.4	111.7	112.5	111.7	111.3	115.9	117.5
Coal Mining	84.1	60.4	56.9	58.2	57.9	67.1	71.0
Manure Management	31.7	42.4	46.6	46.7	50.7	49.4	49.5
Petroleum Systems	35.4	31.5	29.4	29.4	30.0	30.2	30.9
Wastewater Treatment	23.5	25.2	24.3	24.5	24.4	24.5	24.5
Forest Land Remaining							
Forest Land	3.2	14.3	9.8	21.6	20.0	11.9	7.8
Rice Cultivation	7.1	7.5	6.8	5.9	6.2	7.2	7.3
Stationary Combustion	7.4	6.6	6.6	6.2	6.5	6.5	6.2
Abandoned Underground							
Coal Mines	6.0	7.4	5.5	5.5	5.6	5.9	5.5
Mobile Combustion	4.7	3.4	2.5	2.3	2.2	2.0	2.0
Composting	0.3	1.3	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7
Petrochemical Production	0.9	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.4
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2
Ferroalloy Production	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Incineration of Waste	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>International Bunker Fuels^c</i>	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
N₂O	315.2	341.0	322.9	326.4	325.1	310.8	295.6
Agricultural Soil Management	197.8	206.8	211.3	208.9	209.4	210.7	204.6
Mobile Combustion	43.9	53.2	36.9	33.6	30.3	26.1	23.9
Manure Management	14.5	17.1	17.3	18.0	18.1	17.9	17.9
Nitric Acid Production	17.7	19.4	16.5	16.2	19.2	16.4	14.6
Stationary Combustion	12.8	14.6	14.7	14.4	14.6	14.2	12.8
Forest Land Remaining							
Forest Land	2.7	12.1	8.4	18.0	16.7	10.1	6.7
Wastewater Treatment	3.7	4.5	4.8	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.0
N ₂ O from Product Uses	4.4	4.9	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4
Adipic Acid Production	15.8	5.5	5.0	4.3	3.7	2.0	1.9
Composting	0.4	1.4	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.8
Settlements Remaining							
Settlements	1.0	1.1	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.5
Incineration of Waste	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Wetlands Remaining							
Wetlands	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>International Bunker Fuels^c</i>	1.1	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.1
HFCs	36.9	103.2	120.2	123.5	129.5	129.4	125.7
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances ^d	0.3	74.3	104.2	109.4	112.3	115.5	120.0

HCFC-22 Production	36.4	28.6	15.8	13.8	17.0	13.6	5.4
Semiconductor Manufacture	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
PFCs	20.8	13.5	6.2	6.0	7.5	6.6	5.6
Semiconductor Manufacture	2.2	4.9	3.2	3.5	3.7	4.0	4.0
Aluminum Production	18.5	8.6	3.0	2.5	3.8	2.7	1.6
SF₆	34.4	20.1	19.0	17.9	16.7	16.1	14.8
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	28.4	16.0	15.1	14.1	13.2	13.3	12.8
Magnesium Production and Processing	5.4	3.0	2.9	2.9	2.6	1.9	1.1
Semiconductor Manufacture	0.5	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.9	1.0
Total	6,181.8	7,112.7	7,213.5	7,166.9	7,263.4	7,061.1	6,633.2
Net Emissions (Sources and Sinks)	5,320.3	6,536.1	6,157.1	6,102.6	6,202.5	6,020.7	5,618.2

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

^a Parentheses indicate negative values or sequestration. The net CO₂ flux total includes both emissions and sequestration, and constitutes a net sink in the United States. Sinks are only included in net emissions total.

^b Emissions from Wood Biomass and Ethanol Consumption are not included specifically in summing energy sector totals. Net carbon fluxes from changes in biogenic carbon reservoirs are accounted for in the estimates for Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry.

^c Emissions from International Bunker Fuels are not included in totals.

^d Small amounts of PFC emissions also result from this source.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Figure ES-4 illustrates the relative contribution of the direct greenhouse gases to total U.S. emissions in 2009. The primary greenhouse gas emitted by human activities in the United States was CO₂, representing approximately 83.0 percent of total greenhouse gas emissions. The largest source of CO₂, and of overall greenhouse gas emissions, was fossil fuel combustion. CH₄ emissions, which have increased by 1.7 percent since 1990, resulted primarily from natural gas systems, enteric fermentation associated with domestic livestock, and decomposition of wastes in landfills. Agricultural soil management and mobile source fuel combustion were the major sources of N₂O emissions. Ozone depleting substance substitute emissions and emissions of HFC-23 during the production of HCFC-22 were the primary contributors to aggregate HFC emissions. PFC emissions resulted as a by-product of primary aluminum production and from semiconductor manufacturing, while electrical transmission and distribution systems accounted for most SF₆ emissions.

Figure ES-4: 2009 Greenhouse Gas Emissions by Gas (percents based on Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Overall, from 1990 to 2009, total emissions of CO₂ and CH₄ increased by 405.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (8.0 percent) and 11.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1.7 percent), respectively. Conversely, N₂O emissions decreased by 19.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. (6.2 percent). During the same period, aggregate weighted emissions of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ rose by 54.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (58.8 percent). From 1990 to 2009, HFCs increased by 88.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (240.41 percent), PFCs decreased by 15.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (73.0 percent), and SF₆ decreased by 19.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (56.8 percent). Despite being emitted in smaller quantities relative to the other principal greenhouse gases, emissions of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ are significant because many of these gases have extremely high global warming potentials and, in the cases of PFCs and SF₆, long atmospheric lifetimes. Conversely, U.S. greenhouse gas emissions were partly offset by carbon sequestration in forests, trees in urban areas, agricultural soils, and landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps, which, in aggregate, offset 15.3 percent of total emissions in 2009. The following sections describe each gas' contribution to total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in more detail.

Carbon Dioxide Emissions

The global carbon cycle is made up of large carbon flows and reservoirs. Billions of tons of carbon in the form of CO₂ are absorbed by oceans and living biomass (i.e., sinks) and are emitted to the atmosphere annually through natural processes (i.e., sources). When in equilibrium, carbon fluxes among these various reservoirs are roughly

balanced. Since the Industrial Revolution (i.e., about 1750), global atmospheric concentrations of CO₂ have risen about 36 percent (IPCC 2007), principally due to the combustion of fossil fuels. Within the United States, fossil fuel combustion accounted for 94.6 percent of CO₂ emissions in 2009. Globally, approximately 30,313 Tg of CO₂ were added to the atmosphere through the combustion of fossil fuels in 2009, of which the United States accounted for about 18 percent.¹² Changes in land use and forestry practices can also emit CO₂ (e.g., through conversion of forest land to agricultural or urban use) or can act as a sink for CO₂ (e.g., through net additions to forest biomass). In addition to fossil-fuel combustion, several other sources emit significant quantities of CO₂. These sources include, but are not limited to non-energy use of fuels, iron and steel production and cement production (Figure ES-5).

Figure ES-5: 2009 Sources of CO₂ Emissions

As the largest source of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions, CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion has accounted for approximately 78 percent of GWP-weighted emissions since 1990, growing slowly from 77 percent of total GWP-weighted emissions in 1990 to 79 percent in 2009. Emissions of CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion increased at an average annual rate of 0.4 percent from 1990 to 2009. The fundamental factors influencing this trend include (1) a generally growing domestic economy over the last 20 years, and (2) overall growth in emissions from electricity generation and transportation activities. Between 1990 and 2009, CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion increased from 4,738.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. to 5,209.0 Tg CO₂ Eq.—a 9.9 percent total increase over the twenty-year period. From 2008 to 2009, these emissions decreased by 356.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (6.4 percent), the largest decrease in any year over the twenty-year period.

Historically, changes in emissions from fossil fuel combustion have been the dominant factor affecting U.S. emission trends. Changes in CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion are influenced by many long-term and short-term factors, including population and economic growth, energy price fluctuations, technological changes, and seasonal temperatures. In the short term, the overall consumption of fossil fuels in the United States fluctuates primarily in response to changes in general economic conditions, energy prices, weather, and the availability of non-fossil alternatives. For example, in a year with increased consumption of goods and services, low fuel prices, severe summer and winter weather conditions, nuclear plant closures, and lower precipitation feeding hydroelectric dams, there would likely be proportionally greater fossil fuel consumption than a year with poor economic performance, high fuel prices, mild temperatures, and increased output from nuclear and hydroelectric plants. In the long term, energy consumption patterns respond to changes that affect the scale of consumption (e.g., population, number of cars, and size of houses), the efficiency with which energy is used in equipment (e.g., cars, power plants, steel mills, and light bulbs) and behavioral choices (e.g., walking, bicycling, or telecommuting to work instead of driving).

Figure ES-6: 2009 CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by Sector and Fuel Type

Figure ES-7: 2009 End-Use Sector Emissions of CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O from Fossil Fuel Combustion

The five major fuel consuming sectors contributing to CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion are electricity generation, transportation, industrial, residential, and commercial. CO₂ emissions are produced by the electricity generation sector as they consume fossil fuel to provide electricity to one of the other four sectors, or “end-use” sectors. For the discussion below, electricity generation emissions have been distributed to each end-use sector on the basis of each sector’s share of aggregate electricity consumption. This method of distributing emissions assumes that each end-use sector consumes electricity that is generated from the national average mix of fuels according to their carbon intensity. Emissions from electricity generation are also addressed separately after the end-use sectors have been discussed.

¹² Global CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion were taken from Energy Information Administration *International Energy Statistics 2010* < <http://tonto.eia.doe.gov/cfapps/ipdbproject/IEDIndex3.cfm> > EIA (2010a).

Note that emissions from U.S. territories are calculated separately due to a lack of specific consumption data for the individual end-use sectors.

Figure ES-6, Figure ES-7, and Table ES-3 summarize CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion by end-use sector.

Table ES-3: CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by Fuel Consuming End-Use Sector (Tg or million metric tons CO₂ Eq.)

End-Use Sector	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Transportation	1,489.0	1,813.0	1,901.3	1,882.6	1,899.0	1,794.6	1,724.1
Combustion	1,485.9	1,809.5	1,896.6	1,878.1	1,894.0	1,789.9	1,719.7
Electricity	3.0	3.4	4.7	4.5	5.0	4.7	4.4
Industrial	1,533.2	1,640.8	1,560.0	1,560.2	1,572.0	1,517.7	1,333.7
Combustion	846.5	851.1	823.1	848.2	842.0	802.9	730.4
Electricity	686.7	789.8	737.0	712.0	730.0	714.8	603.3
Residential	931.4	1,133.1	1,214.7	1,152.4	1,198.5	1,182.2	1,123.8
Combustion	338.3	370.7	357.9	321.5	342.4	348.2	339.2
Electricity	593.0	762.4	856.7	830.8	856.1	834.0	784.6
Commercial	757.0	972.1	1,027.2	1,007.6	1,041.1	1,031.6	985.7
Combustion	219.0	230.8	223.5	208.6	219.4	224.2	224.0
Electricity	538.0	741.3	803.7	799.0	821.7	807.4	761.7
U.S. Territories^a	27.9	35.9	50.0	50.3	46.1	39.8	41.7
Total	4,738.4	5,594.8	5,753.2	5,653.1	5,756.7	5,565.9	5,209.0
Electricity Generation	1,820.8	2,296.9	2,402.1	2,346.4	2,412.8	2,360.9	2,154.0

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Combustion-related emissions from electricity generation are allocated based on aggregate national electricity consumption by each end-use sector.

^a Fuel consumption by U.S. territories (i.e., American Samoa, Guam, Puerto Rico, U.S. Virgin Islands, Wake Island, and other U.S. Pacific Islands) is included in this report.

Transportation End-Use Sector. Transportation activities (excluding international bunker fuels) accounted for 33 percent of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion in 2009.¹³ Virtually all of the energy consumed in this end-use sector came from petroleum products. Nearly 65 percent of the emissions resulted from gasoline consumption for personal vehicle use. The remaining emissions came from other transportation activities, including the combustion of diesel fuel in heavy-duty vehicles and jet fuel in aircraft. From 1990 to 2009, transportation emissions rose by 16 percent due, in large part, to increased demand for travel and the stagnation of fuel efficiency across the U.S. vehicle fleet. The number of vehicle miles traveled by light-duty motor vehicles (passenger cars and light-duty trucks) increased 39 percent from 1990 to 2009, as a result of a confluence of factors including population growth, economic growth, urban sprawl, and low fuel prices over much of this period.

Industrial End-Use Sector. Industrial CO₂ emissions, resulting both directly from the combustion of fossil fuels and indirectly from the generation of electricity that is consumed by industry, accounted for 26 percent of CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion in 2009. Approximately 55 percent of these emissions resulted from direct fossil fuel combustion to produce steam and/or heat for industrial processes. The remaining emissions resulted from consuming electricity for motors, electric furnaces, ovens, lighting, and other applications. In contrast to the other end-use sectors, emissions from industry have steadily declined since 1990. This decline is due to structural changes in the U.S. economy (i.e., shifts from a manufacturing-based to a service-based economy), fuel switching, and efficiency improvements.

Residential and Commercial End-Use Sectors. The residential and commercial end-use sectors accounted for 22 and 19 percent, respectively, of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion in 2009. Both sectors relied heavily on electricity for meeting energy demands, with 70 and 77 percent, respectively, of their emissions attributable to electricity consumption for lighting, heating, cooling, and operating appliances. The remaining emissions were due to the consumption of natural gas and petroleum for heating and cooking. Emissions from these end-use sectors have increased 25 percent since 1990, due to increasing electricity consumption for lighting, heating, air

¹³ If emissions from international bunker fuels are included, the transportation end-use sector accounted for 35 percent of U.S. emissions from fossil fuel combustion in 2009.

conditioning, and operating appliances.

Electricity Generation. The United States relies on electricity to meet a significant portion of its energy demands. Electricity generators consumed 36 percent of U.S. energy from fossil fuels and emitted 41 percent of the CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion in 2009. The type of fuel combusted by electricity generators has a significant effect on their emissions. For example, some electricity is generated with low CO₂ emitting energy technologies, particularly non-fossil options such as nuclear, hydroelectric, or geothermal energy. However, electricity generators rely on coal for over half of their total energy requirements and accounted for 95 percent of all coal consumed for energy in the United States in 2009. Consequently, changes in electricity demand have a significant impact on coal consumption and associated CO₂ emissions.

Other significant CO₂ trends included the following:

- CO₂ emissions from non-energy use of fossil fuels have increased 4.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (4.0 percent) from 1990 through 2009. Emissions from non-energy uses of fossil fuels were 123.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009, which constituted 2.2 percent of total national CO₂ emissions, approximately the same proportion as in 1990.
- CO₂ emissions from iron and steel production and metallurgical coke production decreased by 24.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (36.6 percent) from 2008 to 2009, continuing a trend of decreasing emissions from 1990 through 2009 of 57.9 percent (57.7 Tg CO₂ Eq.). This decline is due to the restructuring of the industry, technological improvements, and increased scrap utilization.
- In 2009, CO₂ emissions from cement production decreased by 11.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (28.4 percent) from 2008. After decreasing in 1991 by two percent from 1990 levels, cement production emissions grew every year through 2006; emissions decreased in the last three years. Overall, from 1990 to 2009, emissions from cement production decreased by 12.8 percent, a decrease of 4.3 Tg CO₂ Eq.
- Net CO₂ uptake from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry increased by 153.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (17.8 percent) from 1990 through 2009. This increase was primarily due to an increase in the rate of net carbon accumulation in forest carbon stocks, particularly in aboveground and belowground tree biomass, and harvested wood pools. Annual carbon accumulation in landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps slowed over this period, while the rate of carbon accumulation in urban trees increased.

Methane Emissions

Methane (CH₄) is more than 20 times as effective as CO₂ at trapping heat in the atmosphere (IPCC 1996). Over the last two hundred and fifty years, the concentration of CH₄ in the atmosphere increased by 148 percent (IPCC 2007). Anthropogenic sources of CH₄ include natural gas and petroleum systems, , agricultural activities, landfills, coal mining, wastewater treatment, stationary and mobile combustion, and certain industrial processes (see Figure ES-8).

Figure ES-8: 2009 Sources of CH₄ Emissions

Some significant trends in U.S. emissions of CH₄ include the following:

- In 2009, CH₄ emissions from coal mining were 71.0 Tg CO₂ Eq., a 3.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (5.8 percent) increase over 2008 emission levels. The overall decline of 13.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. (15.5 percent) from 1990 results from the mining of less gassy coal from underground mines and the increased use of CH₄ collected from degasification systems.
- Natural gas systems were the largest anthropogenic source category of CH₄ emissions in the United States in 2009 with 221.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. of CH₄ emitted into the atmosphere. Those emissions have increased by 31.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (16.6 percent) since 1990. Methane emissions from this source increased 4 percent from 2008 to 2009 due to an increase in production and production wells.
- Enteric Fermentation is the second largest anthropogenic source of CH₄ emissions in the United States. In 2009, enteric fermentation CH₄ emissions were 139.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (20 percent of total CH₄ emissions), which represents an increase of 7.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (5.8 percent) since 1990.

- Methane emissions from manure management increased by 55.9 percent since 1990, from 31.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 1990 to 49.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009. The majority of this increase was from swine and dairy cow manure, since the general trend in manure management is one of increasing use of liquid systems, which tends to produce greater CH₄ emissions. The increase in liquid systems is the combined result of a shift to larger facilities, and to facilities in the West and Southwest, all of which tend to use liquid systems. Also, new regulations limiting the application of manure nutrients have shifted manure management practices at smaller dairies from daily spread to manure managed and stored on site.
- Landfills are the third largest anthropogenic source of CH₄ emissions in the United States, accounting for 17 percent of total CH₄ emissions (117.5 Tg CO₂ Eq.) in 2009. From 1990 to 2009, CH₄ emissions from landfills decreased by 29.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (20 percent), with small increases occurring in some interim years. This downward trend in overall emissions is the result of increases in the amount of landfill gas collected and combusted,¹⁴ which has more than offset the additional CH₄ emissions resulting from an increase in the amount of municipal solid waste landfilled.

Nitrous Oxide Emissions

N₂O is produced by biological processes that occur in soil and water and by a variety of anthropogenic activities in the agricultural, energy-related, industrial, and waste management fields. While total N₂O emissions are much lower than CO₂ emissions, N₂O is approximately 300 times more powerful than CO₂ at trapping heat in the atmosphere (IPCC 1996). Since 1750, the global atmospheric concentration of N₂O has risen by approximately 18 percent (IPCC 2007). The main anthropogenic activities producing N₂O in the United States are agricultural soil management, fuel combustion in motor vehicles, manure management, nitric acid production and stationary fuel combustion, (see Figure ES-9).

Figure ES-9: 2009 Sources of N₂O Emissions

Some significant trends in U.S. emissions of N₂O include the following:

- In 2009, N₂O emissions from mobile combustion were 23.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (approximately 8.1 percent of U.S. N₂O emissions). From 1990 to 2009, N₂O emissions from mobile combustion decreased by 45.6 percent. However, from 1990 to 1998 emissions increased by 25.6 percent, due to control technologies that reduced NO_x emissions while increasing N₂O emissions. Since 1998, newer control technologies have led to an overall decline in N₂O from this source.
- N₂O emissions from adipic acid production were 1.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009, and have decreased significantly since 1996 from the widespread installation of pollution control measures. Emissions from adipic acid production have decreased by 87.7 percent since 1990, and emissions from adipic acid production have remained consistently lower than pre-1996 levels since 1998.
- Agricultural soils accounted for approximately 69.2 percent of N₂O emissions in the United States in 2009. Estimated emissions from this source in 2009 were 204.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. Annual N₂O emissions from agricultural soils fluctuated between 1990 and 2009, although overall emissions were 3.4 percent higher in 2009 than in 1990.

HFC, PFC, and SF₆ Emissions

HFCs and PFCs are families of synthetic chemicals that are used as alternatives to ODS, which are being phased out under the Montreal Protocol and Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990. HFCs and PFCs do not deplete the stratospheric ozone layer, and are therefore acceptable alternatives under the Montreal Protocol.

These compounds, however, along with SF₆, are potent greenhouse gases. In addition to having high global warming potentials, SF₆ and PFCs have extremely long atmospheric lifetimes, resulting in their essentially irreversible accumulation in the atmosphere once emitted. Sulfur hexafluoride is the most potent greenhouse gas the

¹⁴ The CO₂ produced from combusted landfill CH₄ at landfills is not counted in national inventories as it is considered part of the natural C cycle of decomposition.

IPCC has evaluated (IPCC 1996).

Other emissive sources of these gases include electrical transmission and distribution systems, HCFC-22 production, semiconductor manufacturing, aluminum production, and magnesium production and processing (see Figure ES-10).

Figure ES-10: 2009 Sources of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ Emissions

Some significant trends in U.S. HFC, PFC, and SF₆ emissions include the following:

- Emissions resulting from the substitution of ODS (e.g., CFCs) have been consistently increasing, from small amounts in 1990 to 120.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009. Emissions from ODS substitutes are both the largest and the fastest growing source of HFC, PFC, and SF₆ emissions. These emissions have been increasing as phase-outs required under the Montreal Protocol come into effect, especially after 1994, when full market penetration was made for the first generation of new technologies featuring ODS substitutes.
- HFC emissions from the production of HCFC-22 decreased by 85.2 percent (31.0 Tg CO₂ Eq.) from 1990 through 2009, due to a steady decline in the emission rate of HFC-23 (i.e., the amount of HFC-23 emitted per kilogram of HCFC-22 manufactured) and the use of thermal oxidation at some plants to reduce HFC-23 emissions.
- SF₆ emissions from electric power transmission and distribution systems decreased by 54.8 percent (15.6 Tg CO₂ Eq.) from 1990 to 2009, primarily because of higher purchase prices for SF₆ and efforts by industry to reduce emissions.
- PFC emissions from aluminum production decreased by 91.5 percent (17.0 Tg CO₂ Eq.) from 1990 to 2009, due to both industry emission reduction efforts and lower domestic aluminum production.

Overview of Sector Emissions and Trends

In accordance with the Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997), and the 2003 UNFCCC Guidelines on Reporting and Review (UNFCCC 2003), Figure ES-11 and Table ES-4 aggregate emissions and sinks by these chapters. Emissions of all gases can be summed from each source category from IPCC guidance. Over the twenty-year period of 1990 to 2009, total emissions in the Energy and Agriculture sectors grew by 463.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (9 percent), and 35.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (9 percent), respectively. Emissions decreased in the Industrial Processes, Waste, and Solvent and Other Product Use sectors by 32.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (10 percent), 24.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (14 percent) and less than 0.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.4 percent), respectively. Over the same period, estimates of net C sequestration in the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry sector (magnitude of emissions plus CO₂ flux from all LULUCF source categories) increased by 143.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (17 percent).

Figure ES-11: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks by Chapter/IPCC Sector

Table ES-4: Recent Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks by Chapter/IPCC Sector (Tg or million metric tons CO₂ Eq.)

Chapter/IPCC Sector	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Energy	5,287.8	6,168.0	6,282.8	6,210.2	6,290.7	6,116.6	5,751.1
Industrial Processes	315.8	348.8	334.1	339.4	350.9	331.7	282.9
Solvent and Other Product Use	4.4	4.9	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4
Agriculture	383.6	410.6	418.8	418.8	425.8	426.3	419.3
Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Emissions)	15.0	36.3	28.6	49.8	47.5	33.2	25.0
Waste	175.2	143.9	144.9	144.4	144.1	149.0	150.5
Total Emissions	6,181.8	7,112.7	7,213.5	7,166.9	7,263.4	7,061.1	6,633.2
Net CO ₂ Flux from Land Use, Land-	(861.5)	(576.6)	(1,056.5)	(1,064.3)	(1,060.9)	(1,040.5)	(1,015.1)

Use Change, and Forestry (Sinks)*							
Net Emissions (Sources and Sinks)	5,320.3	6,536.1	6,157.1	6,102.6	6,202.5	6,020.7	5,618.2

* The net CO₂ flux total includes both emissions and sequestration, and constitutes a sink in the United States. Sinks are only included in net emissions total.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Parentheses indicate negative values or sequestration.

Energy

The Energy chapter contains emissions of all greenhouse gases resulting from stationary and mobile energy activities including fuel combustion and fugitive fuel emissions. Energy-related activities, primarily fossil fuel combustion, accounted for the vast majority of U.S. CO₂ emissions for the period of 1990 through 2009. In 2009, approximately 83 percent of the energy consumed in the United States (on a Btu basis) was produced through the combustion of fossil fuels. The remaining 17 percent came from other energy sources such as hydropower, biomass, nuclear, wind, and solar energy (see Figure ES-12). Energy-related activities are also responsible for CH₄ and N₂O emissions (49 percent and 13 percent of total U.S. emissions of each gas, respectively). Overall, emission sources in the Energy chapter account for a combined 87 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2009.

Figure ES-12: 2009 U.S. Energy Consumption by Energy Source

Industrial Processes

The Industrial Processes chapter contains by-product or fugitive emissions of greenhouse gases from industrial processes not directly related to energy activities such as fossil fuel combustion. For example, industrial processes can chemically transform raw materials, which often release waste gases such as CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O. These processes include iron and steel production and metallurgical coke production, cement production, ammonia production and urea consumption, lime production, limestone and dolomite use (e.g., flux stone, flue gas desulfurization, and glass manufacturing), soda ash production and consumption, titanium dioxide production, phosphoric acid production, ferroalloy production, CO₂ consumption, silicon carbide production and consumption, aluminum production, petrochemical production, nitric acid production, adipic acid production, lead production, and zinc production. Additionally, emissions from industrial processes release HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆. Overall, emission sources in the Industrial Process chapter account for 4 percent of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2009.

Solvent and Other Product Use

The Solvent and Other Product Use chapter contains greenhouse gas emissions that are produced as a by-product of various solvent and other product uses. In the United States, emissions from N₂O from product uses, the only source of greenhouse gas emissions from this sector, accounted for about 0.1 percent of total U.S. anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions on a carbon equivalent basis in 2009.

Agriculture

The Agricultural chapter contains anthropogenic emissions from agricultural activities (except fuel combustion, which is addressed in the Energy chapter, and agricultural CO₂ fluxes, which are addressed in the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry Chapter). Agricultural activities contribute directly to emissions of greenhouse gases through a variety of processes, including the following source categories: enteric fermentation in domestic livestock, livestock manure management, rice cultivation, agricultural soil management, and field burning of agricultural residues. CH₄ and N₂O were the primary greenhouse gases emitted by agricultural activities. CH₄ emissions from enteric fermentation and manure management represented 20 percent and 7 percent of total CH₄ emissions from anthropogenic activities, respectively, in 2009. Agricultural soil management activities such as fertilizer application and other cropping practices were the largest source of U.S. N₂O emissions in 2009, accounting for 69 percent. In 2009, emission sources accounted for in the Agricultural chapters were responsible for 6.3 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions.

Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry

The Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter contains emissions of CH₄ and N₂O, and emissions and removals of CO₂ from forest management, other land-use activities, and land-use change. Forest management practices, tree planting in urban areas, the management of agricultural soils, and the landfilling of yard trimmings and food scraps resulted in a net uptake (sequestration) of C in the United States. Forests (including vegetation, soils, and harvested wood) accounted for 85 percent of total 2009 net CO₂ flux, urban trees accounted for 9 percent, mineral and organic soil carbon stock changes accounted for 4 percent, and landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps accounted for 1 percent of the total net flux in 2009. The net forest sequestration is a result of net forest growth and increasing forest area, as well as a net accumulation of carbon stocks in harvested wood pools. The net sequestration in urban forests is a result of net tree growth in these areas. In agricultural soils, mineral and organic soils sequester approximately 5.5 times as much C as is emitted from these soils through liming and urea fertilization. The mineral soil C sequestration is largely due to the conversion of cropland to permanent pastures and hay production, a reduction in summer fallow areas in semi-arid areas, an increase in the adoption of conservation tillage practices, and an increase in the amounts of organic fertilizers (i.e., manure and sewage sludge) applied to agriculture lands. The landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps net sequestration is due to the long-term accumulation of yard trimming carbon and food scraps in landfills.

Land use, land-use change, and forestry activities in 2009 resulted in a net C sequestration of 1,015.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (Table ES-5). This represents an offset of 18 percent of total U.S. CO₂ emissions, or 15 percent of total greenhouse gas emissions in 2009. Between 1990 and 2009, total land use, land-use change, and forestry net C flux resulted in a 17.8 percent increase in CO₂ sequestration, primarily due to an increase in the rate of net C accumulation in forest C stocks, particularly in aboveground and belowground tree biomass, and harvested wood pools. Annual C accumulation in landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps slowed over this period, while the rate of annual C accumulation increased in urban trees.

Table ES-5: Net CO₂ Flux from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Tg or million metric tons CO₂ Eq.)

Sink Category	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land ¹	(681.1)	(378.3)	(911.5)	(917.5)	(911.9)	(891.0)	(863.1)
Cropland Remaining Cropland	(29.4)	(30.2)	(18.3)	(19.1)	(19.7)	(18.1)	(17.4)
Land Converted to Cropland	2.2	2.4	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9
Grassland Remaining Grassland	(52.2)	(52.6)	(8.9)	(8.8)	(8.6)	(8.5)	(8.3)
Land Converted to Grassland	(19.8)	(27.2)	(24.4)	(24.2)	(24.0)	(23.8)	(23.6)
Settlements Remaining Settlements ²	(57.1)	(77.5)	(87.8)	(89.8)	(91.9)	(93.9)	(95.9)
Other (Landfilled Yard Trimmings and Food Scraps)	(24.2)	(13.2)	(11.5)	(11.0)	(10.9)	(11.2)	(12.6)
Total	(861.5)	(576.6)	(1,056.5)	(1,064.3)	(1,060.9)	(1,040.5)	(1,015.1)

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Parentheses indicate net sequestration.

Emissions from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry are shown in Table ES-6. The application of crushed limestone and dolomite to managed land (i.e., liming of agricultural soils) and urea fertilization resulted in CO₂ emissions of 7.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009, an increase of 11 percent relative to 1990. The application of synthetic fertilizers to forest and settlement soils in 2009 resulted in direct N₂O emissions of 1.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. Direct N₂O emissions from fertilizer application to forest soils have increased by 455 percent since 1990, but still account for a relatively small portion of overall emissions. Additionally, direct N₂O emissions from fertilizer application to settlement soils increased by 55 percent since 1990. Forest fires resulted in CH₄ emissions of 7.8 Tg CO₂ Eq., and in N₂O emissions of 6.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009. CO₂ and N₂O emissions from peatlands totaled 1.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. and less than 0.01 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009, respectively.

Table ES-6: Emissions from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Tg or million metric tons CO₂ Eq.)

Source Category	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO ₂	8.1	8.8	8.9	8.8	9.2	9.6	8.9
Cropland Remaining Cropland: Liming of Agricultural Soils	4.7	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.5	5.0	4.2
Cropland Remaining Cropland: Urea Fertilization	2.4	3.2	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.6	3.6

Wetlands Remaining Wetlands: Peatlands							
Remaining Peatlands	1.0	1.2	1.1	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1
CH₄	3.2	14.3	9.8	21.6	20.0	11.9	7.8
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land: Forest Fires	3.2	14.3	9.8	21.6	20.0	11.9	7.8
N₂O	3.7	13.2	9.8	19.5	18.3	11.6	8.3
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land: Forest Fires	2.6	11.7	8.0	17.6	16.3	9.8	6.4
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land: Forest Soils	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Settlements Remaining Settlements: Settlement Soils	1.0	1.1	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.5
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands: Peatlands							
Remaining Peatlands	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	15.0	36.3	28.6	49.8	47.5	33.2	25.0

+ Less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Waste

The Waste chapter contains emissions from waste management activities (except incineration of waste, which is addressed in the Energy chapter). Landfills were the largest source of anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions in the Waste chapter, accounting for just over 78 percent of this chapter's emissions, and 17 percent of total U.S. CH₄ emissions.¹⁵ Additionally, wastewater treatment accounts for 20 percent of Waste emissions, 4 percent of U.S. CH₄ emissions, and 2 percent of U.S. N₂O emissions. Emissions of CH₄ and N₂O from composting are also accounted for in this chapter; generating emissions of 1.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. and 1.8 Tg CO₂ Eq., respectively. Overall, emission sources accounted for in the Waste chapter generated 2.3 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2009.

Other Information

Emissions by Economic Sector

Throughout the Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks report, emission estimates are grouped into six sectors (i.e., chapters) defined by the IPCC: Energy; Industrial Processes; Solvent Use; Agriculture; Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry; and Waste. While it is important to use this characterization for consistency with UNFCCC reporting guidelines, it is also useful to allocate emissions into more commonly used sectoral categories. This section reports emissions by the following economic sectors: Residential, Commercial, Industry, Transportation, Electricity Generation, Agriculture, and U.S. Territories.

Table ES-7 summarizes emissions from each of these sectors, and Figure ES-13 shows the trend in emissions by sector from 1990 to 2009.

Figure ES-13: Emissions Allocated to Economic Sectors

Table ES-7: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Allocated to Economic Sectors (Tg or million metric tons CO₂ Eq.)

Implied Sectors	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Electric Power Industry	1,868.9	2,337.6	2,444.6	2,388.2	2,454.0	2,400.7	2,193.0
Transportation	1,545.2	1,932.3	2,017.4	1,994.4	2,003.8	1,890.7	1,812.4
Industry	1,564.4	1,544.0	1,441.9	1,497.3	1,483.0	1,446.9	1,322.7
Agriculture	429.0	485.1	493.2	516.7	520.7	503.9	490.0
Commercial	395.5	381.4	387.2	375.2	389.6	403.5	409.5
Residential	345.1	386.2	371.0	335.8	358.9	367.1	360.1
U.S. Territories	33.7	46.0	58.2	59.3	53.5	48.4	45.5

¹⁵ Landfills also store carbon, due to incomplete degradation of organic materials such as wood products and yard trimmings, as described in the Land-Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter of the Inventory report.

Total Emissions	6,181.8	7,112.7	7,213.5	7,166.9	7,263.4	7,061.1	6,633.2
Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Sinks)	(861.5)	(576.6)	(1,056.5)	(1,064.3)	(1,060.9)	(1,040.5)	(1,015.1)
Net Emissions (Sources and Sinks)	5,320.3	6,536.1	6,157.1	6,102.6	6,202.5	6,020.7	5,618.2

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Emissions include CO₂, CH₄, N₂O, HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆. See Table 2-12 for more detailed data.

Using this categorization, emissions from electricity generation accounted for the largest portion (33 percent) of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2009. Transportation activities, in aggregate, accounted for the second largest portion (27 percent), while emissions from industry accounted for the third largest portion (20 percent) of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2009. In contrast to electricity generation and transportation, emissions from industry have in general declined over the past decade. The long-term decline in these emissions has been due to structural changes in the U.S. economy (i.e., shifts from a manufacturing-based to a service-based economy), fuel switching, and energy efficiency improvements. The remaining 20 percent of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions were contributed by, in order of importance, the agriculture, commercial, and residential sectors, plus emissions from U.S. territories. Activities related to agriculture accounted for 7 percent of U.S. emissions; unlike other economic sectors, agricultural sector emissions were dominated by N₂O emissions from agricultural soil management and CH₄ emissions from enteric fermentation. The commercial sector accounted for 6 percent of emissions while the residential sector accounted for 5 percent of emissions and U.S. territories accounted for 1 percent of emissions; emissions from these sectors primarily consisted of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion.

CO₂ was also emitted and sequestered by a variety of activities related to forest management practices, tree planting in urban areas, the management of agricultural soils, and landfilling of yard trimmings.

Electricity is ultimately consumed in the economic sectors described above. Table ES-8 presents greenhouse gas emissions from economic sectors with emissions related to electricity generation distributed into end-use categories (i.e., emissions from electricity generation are allocated to the economic sectors in which the electricity is consumed). To distribute electricity emissions among end-use sectors, emissions from the source categories assigned to electricity generation were allocated to the residential, commercial, industry, transportation, and agriculture economic sectors according to retail sales of electricity.¹⁶ These source categories include CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion and the use of limestone and dolomite for flue gas desulfurization, CO₂ and N₂O from incineration of waste, CH₄ and N₂O from stationary sources, and SF₆ from electrical transmission and distribution systems.

When emissions from electricity are distributed among these sectors, Industrial activities account for the largest share of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions (29 percent) in 2009. Transportation is the second largest contributor to total U.S. emissions (28 percent). The commercial and residential sectors contributed the next largest shares of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2009. Emissions from these sectors increase substantially when emissions from electricity are included, due to their relatively large share of electricity consumption (e.g., lighting, appliances, etc.). In all sectors except agriculture, CO₂ accounts for more than 80 percent of greenhouse gas emissions, primarily from the combustion of fossil fuels. Figure ES-14 shows the trend in these emissions by sector from 1990 to 2009.

Table ES-8: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions by Economic Sector with Electricity-Related Emissions Distributed (Tg or million metric tons CO₂ Eq.)

Implied Sectors	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Industry	2,238.3	2,314.4	2,162.5	2,194.6	2,192.9	2,146.5	1,910.9
Transportation	1,548.3	1,935.8	2,022.2	1,999.0	2,008.9	1,895.5	1,816.9
Commercial	947.7	1,135.8	1,205.1	1,188.5	1,225.3	1,224.5	1,184.9
Residential	953.8	1,162.2	1,242.9	1,181.5	1,229.6	1,215.1	1,158.9
Agriculture	460.0	518.4	522.7	544.1	553.2	531.1	516.0
U.S. Territories	33.7	46.0	58.2	59.3	53.5	48.4	45.5
Total Emissions	6,181.8	7,112.7	7,213.5	7,166.9	7,263.4	7,061.1	6,633.2
Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Sinks)	(861.5)	(576.6)	(1,056.5)	(1,064.3)	(1,060.9)	(1,040.5)	(1,015.1)

¹⁶ Emissions were not distributed to U.S. territories, since the electricity generation sector only includes emissions related to the generation of electricity in the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

and Forestry (Sinks)								
Net Emissions (Sources and Sinks)	5,320.3	6,536.1	6,157.1	6,102.6	6,202.5	6,020.7	5,618.2	

See Table 2-14 for more detailed data.

Figure ES-14: Emissions with Electricity Distributed to Economic Sectors

[BEGIN BOX]

Box ES-2: Recent Trends in Various U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions-Related Data

Total emissions can be compared to other economic and social indices to highlight changes over time. These comparisons include: (1) emissions per unit of aggregate energy consumption, because energy-related activities are the largest sources of emissions; (2) emissions per unit of fossil fuel consumption, because almost all energy-related emissions involve the combustion of fossil fuels; (3) emissions per unit of electricity consumption, because the electric power industry—utilities and nonutilities combined—was the largest source of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2009; (4) emissions per unit of total gross domestic product as a measure of national economic activity; and (5) emissions per capita.

Table ES-9 provides data on various statistics related to U.S. greenhouse gas emissions normalized to 1990 as a baseline year. Greenhouse gas emissions in the United States have grown at an average annual rate of 0.4 percent since 1990. This rate is slightly slower than that for total energy and for fossil fuel consumption, and much slower than that for electricity consumption, overall gross domestic product and national population (see Figure ES-15).

Table ES-9: Recent Trends in Various U.S. Data (Index 1990 = 100)

Variable	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	Growth Rate ^a
GDP ^b	100	140	157	162	165	165	160	2.5%
Electricity Consumption ^c	100	127	134	135	138	138	132	1.5%
Fossil Fuel Consumption ^c	100	117	119	117	119	116	108	0.5%
Energy Consumption ^c	100	116	118	118	120	118	112	0.6%
Population ^d	100	113	118	120	121	122	123	1.1%
Greenhouse Gas Emissions ^e	100	115	117	116	117	114	107	0.4%

^a Average annual growth rate

^b Gross Domestic Product in chained 2005 dollars (BEA 2010)

^c Energy content-weighted values (EIA 2010b)

^d U.S. Census Bureau (2010)

^e GWP-weighted values

Figure ES-15: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Per Capita and Per Dollar of Gross Domestic Product

Source: BEA (2010), U.S. Census Bureau (2010), and emission estimates in this report.

[END BOX]

Indirect Greenhouse Gases (CO, NO_x, NMVOCs, and SO₂)

The reporting requirements of the UNFCCC¹⁷ request that information be provided on indirect greenhouse gases, which include CO, NO_x, NMVOCs, and SO₂. These gases do not have a direct global warming effect, but indirectly affect terrestrial radiation absorption by influencing the formation and destruction of tropospheric and stratospheric ozone, or, in the case of SO₂, by affecting the absorptive characteristics of the atmosphere. Additionally, some of these gases may react with other chemical compounds in the atmosphere to form compounds that are greenhouse gases.

Since 1970, the United States has published estimates of annual emissions of CO, NO_x, NMVOCs, and SO₂ (EPA 2010, EPA 2009),¹⁸ which are regulated under the Clean Air Act. Table ES- 10 shows that fuel combustion accounts for the majority of emissions of these indirect greenhouse gases. Industrial

Agricultural Burning	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
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Source: (EPA 2010, EPA 2009) except for estimates from field burning of agricultural residues.
NA (Not Available)
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Key Categories

The 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006) defines a key category as a “[source or sink category] that is prioritized within the national inventory system because its estimate has a significant influence on a country’s total inventory of direct greenhouse gases in terms of the absolute level of emissions, the trend in emissions, or both.”¹⁹ By definition, key categories are sources or sinks that have the greatest contribution to the absolute overall level of national emissions in any of the years covered by the time series. In addition, when an entire time series of emission estimates is prepared, a thorough investigation of key categories must also account for the influence of trends of individual source and sink categories. Finally, a qualitative evaluation of key categories should be performed, in order to capture any key categories that were not identified in either of the quantitative analyses.

Figure ES-16 presents 2009 emission estimates for the key categories as defined by a level analysis (i.e., the contribution of each source or sink category to the total inventory level). The UNFCCC reporting guidelines request that key category analyses be reported at an appropriate level of disaggregation, which may lead to source and sink category names which differ from those used elsewhere in the inventory report. For more information regarding key categories, see section 1.5 and Annex 1.

Figure ES-16: 2009 Key Categories

Quality Assurance and Quality Control (QA/QC)

The United States seeks to continually improve the quality, transparency, and credibility of the Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks. To assist in these efforts, the United States implemented a systematic approach to QA/QC. While QA/QC has always been an integral part of the U.S. national system for inventory development, the procedures followed for the current inventory have been formalized in accordance with the QA/QC plan and the UNFCCC reporting guidelines.

Uncertainty Analysis of Emission Estimates

While the current U.S. emissions inventory provides a solid foundation for the development of a more detailed and comprehensive national inventory, there are uncertainties associated with the emission estimates. Some of the current estimates, such as those for CO₂ emissions from energy-related activities and cement processing, are considered to have low uncertainties. For some other categories of emissions, however, a lack of data or an incomplete understanding of how emissions are generated increases the uncertainty associated with the estimates presented. Acquiring a better understanding of the uncertainty associated with inventory estimates is an important step in helping to prioritize future work and improve the overall quality of the Inventory. Recognizing the benefit of conducting an uncertainty analysis, the UNFCCC reporting guidelines follow the recommendations of the IPCC Good Practice Guidance (IPCC 2000) and require that countries provide single estimates of uncertainty for source and sink categories.

Currently, a qualitative discussion of uncertainty is presented for all source and sink categories. Within the discussion of each emission source, specific factors affecting the uncertainty surrounding the estimates are discussed. Most sources also contain a quantitative uncertainty assessment, in accordance with UNFCCC reporting guidelines.

¹⁹ See Chapter 7 “Methodological Choice and Recalculation” in IPCC (2000). <<http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/public/gp/gpgaum.htm>>

[BEGIN BOX]

Box ES-3: Recalculations of Inventory Estimates

Each year, emission and sink estimates are recalculated and revised for all years in the Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks, as attempts are made to improve both the analyses themselves, through the use of better methods or data, and the overall usefulness of the report. In this effort, the United States follows the 2006 IPCC Guidelines (IPCC 2006), which states, “Both methodological changes and refinements over time are an essential part of improving inventory quality. It is good practice to change or refine methods” when: available data have changed; the previously used method is not consistent with the IPCC guidelines for that category; a category has become key; the previously used method is insufficient to reflect mitigation activities in a transparent manner; the capacity for inventory preparation has increased; new inventory methods become available; and for correction of errors.” In general, recalculations are made to the U.S. greenhouse gas emission estimates either to incorporate new methodologies or, most commonly, to update recent historical data.

In each Inventory report, the results of all methodology changes and historical data updates are presented in the "Recalculations and Improvements" chapter; detailed descriptions of each recalculation are contained within each source's description contained in the report, if applicable. In general, when methodological changes have been implemented, the entire time series (in the case of the most recent inventory report, 1990 through 2009) has been recalculated to reflect the change, per the 2006 IPCC Guidelines (IPCC 2006). Changes in historical data are generally the result of changes in statistical data supplied by other agencies. References for the data are provided for additional information.

[END BOX]

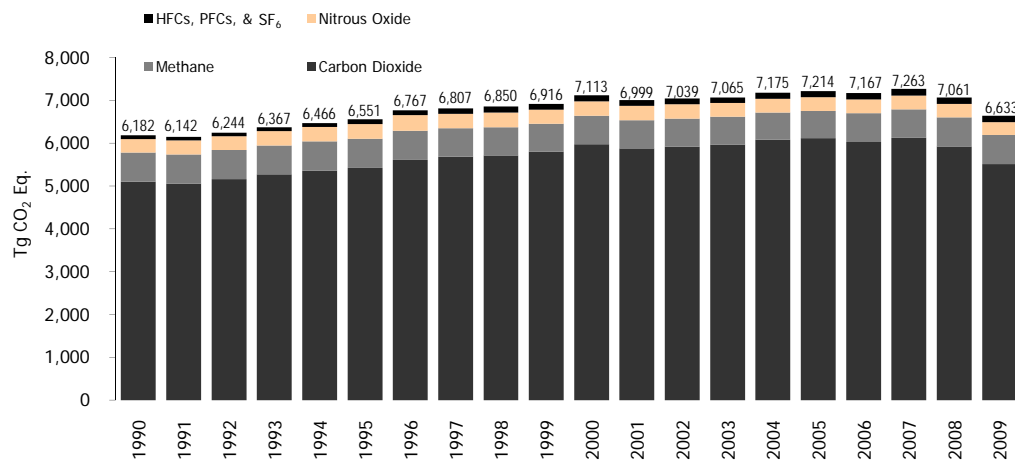


Figure ES-1: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions by Gas

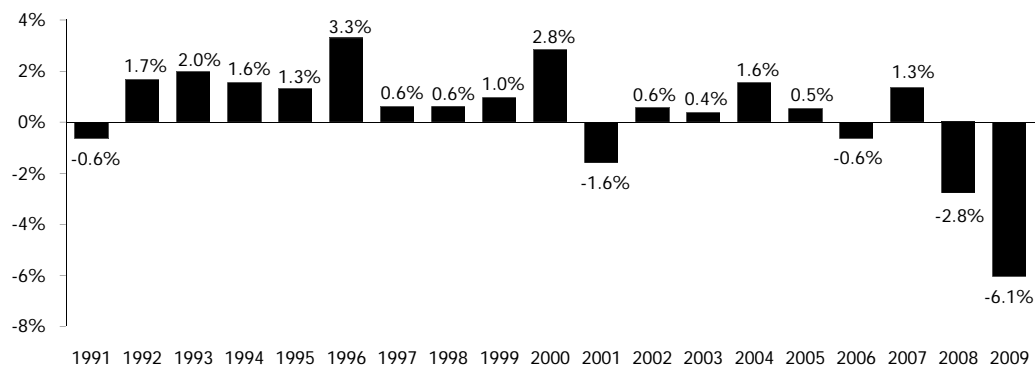


Figure ES-2: Annual Percent Change in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions

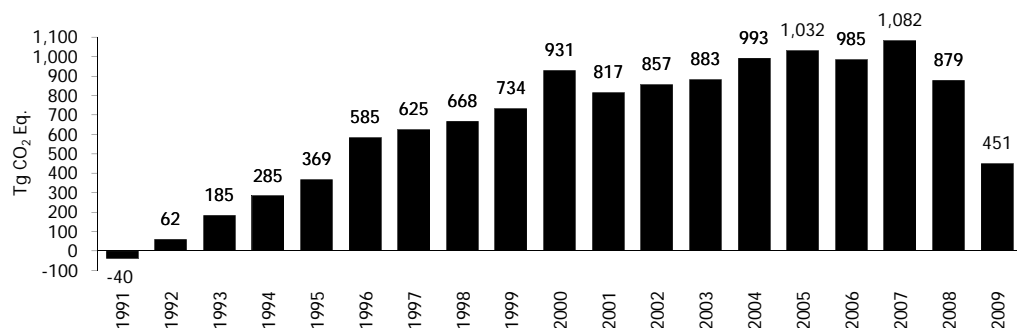


Figure ES-3: Cumulative Change in Annual U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Relative to 1990

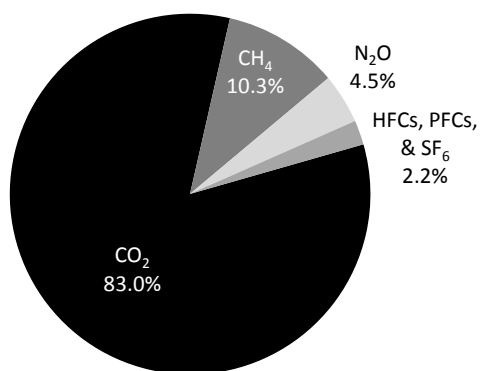


Figure ES-4: 2009 Greenhouse Gas Emissions by Gas (percents based on Tg CO₂ Eq.)

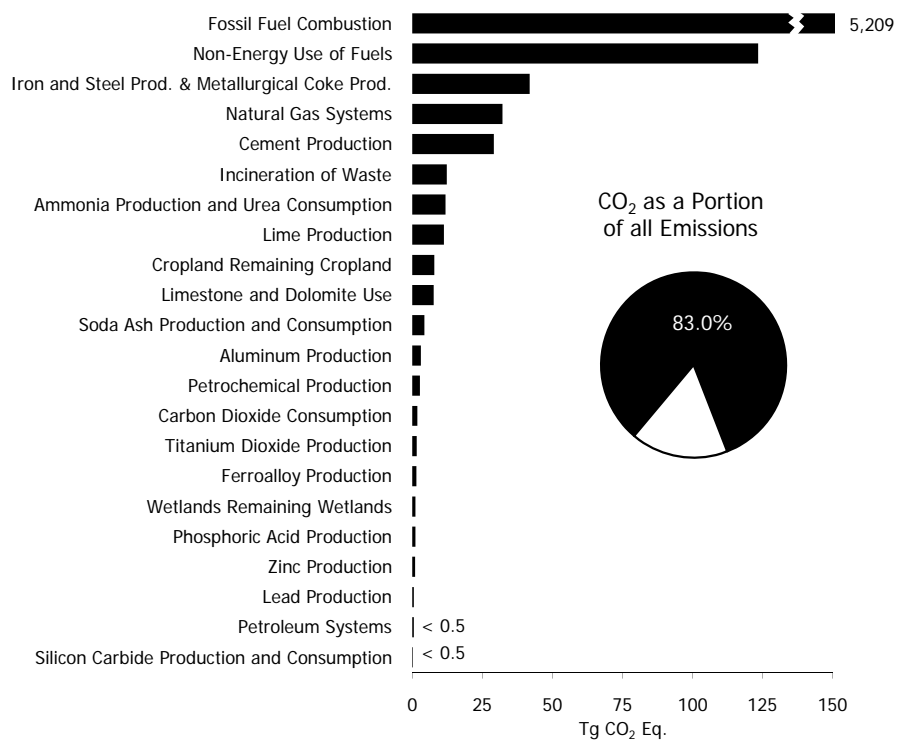


Figure ES-5: 2009 Sources of CO₂ Emissions

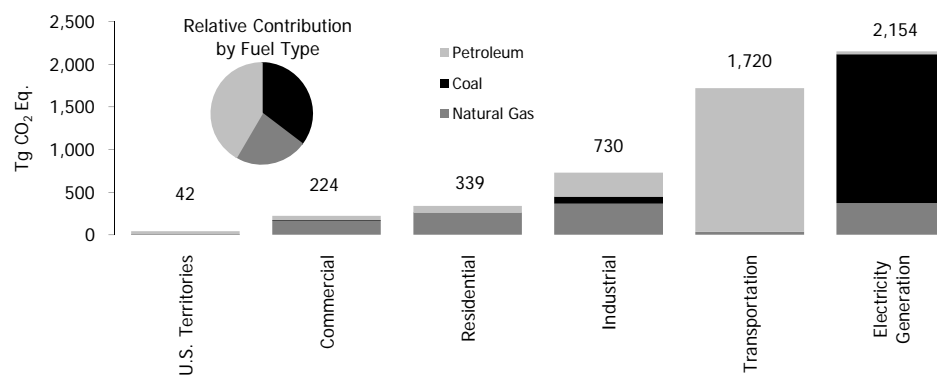


Figure ES-6: 2009 CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by Sector and Fuel Type
 Note: Electricity generation also includes emissions of less than 0.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. from geothermal-based electricity generation.

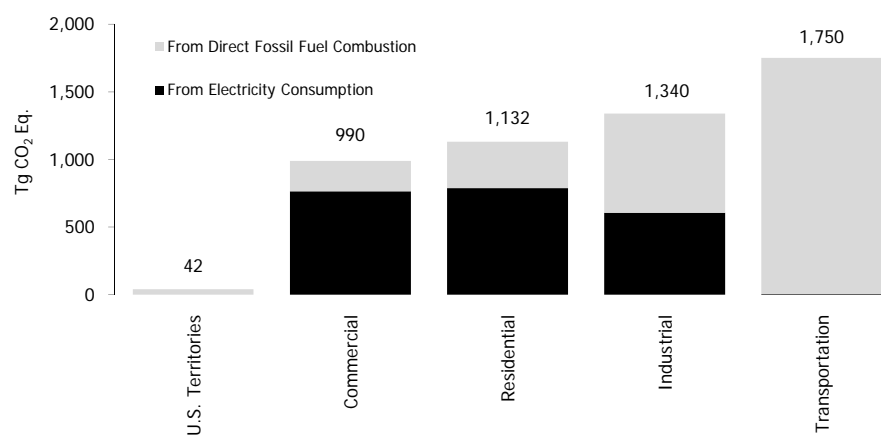


Figure ES-7: 2009 End-Use Sector Emissions of CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O from Fossil Fuel Combustion

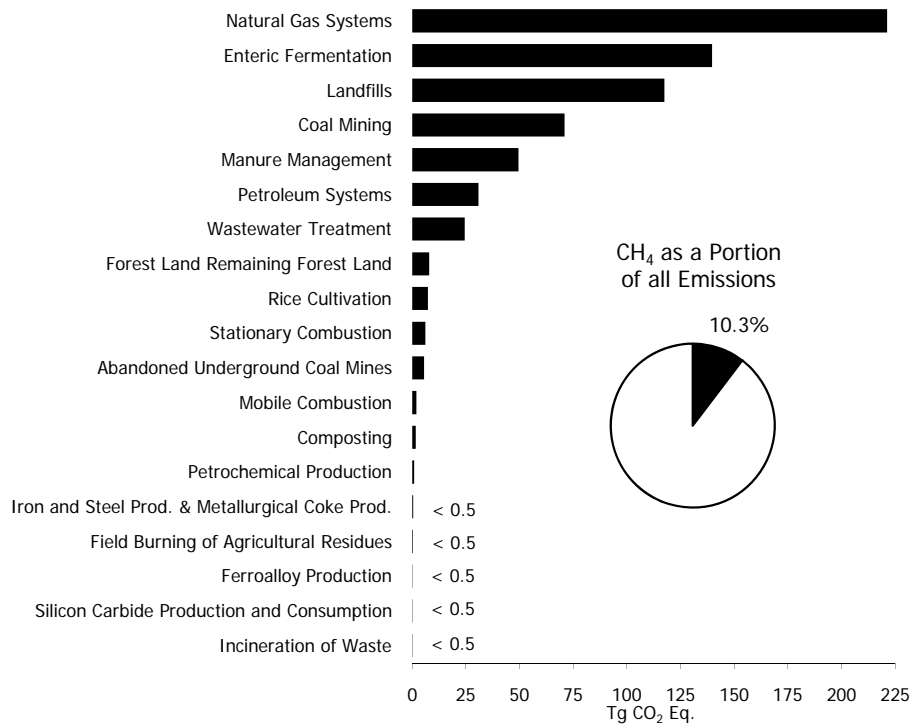


Figure ES-8: 2009 Sources of CH₄ Emissions

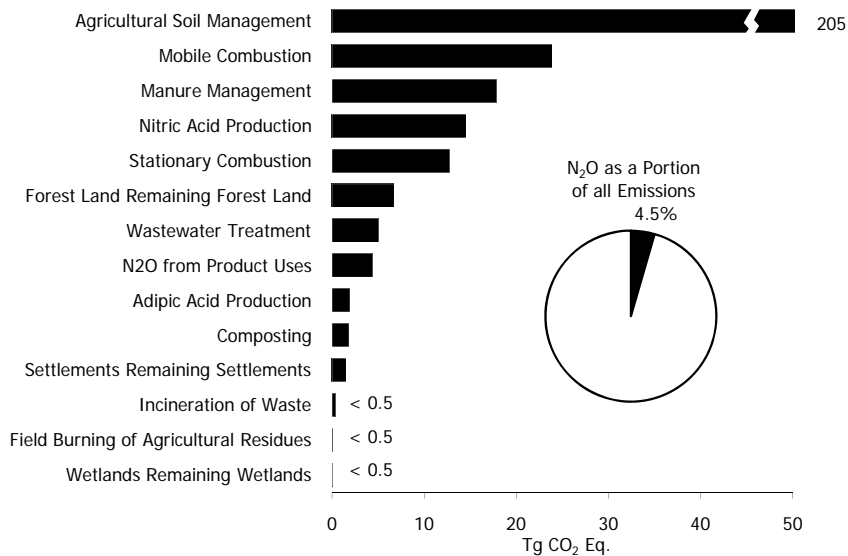


Figure ES-9: 2009 Sources of N₂O Emissions

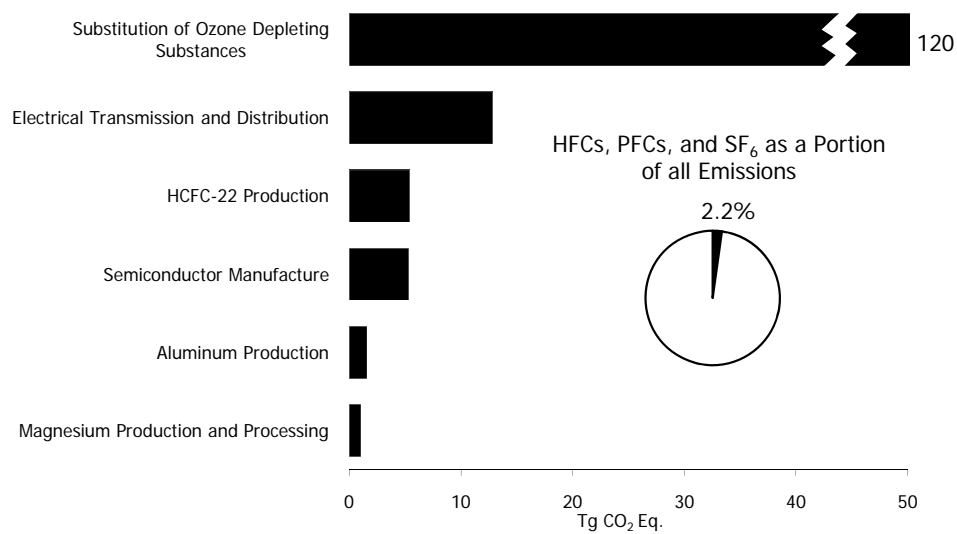
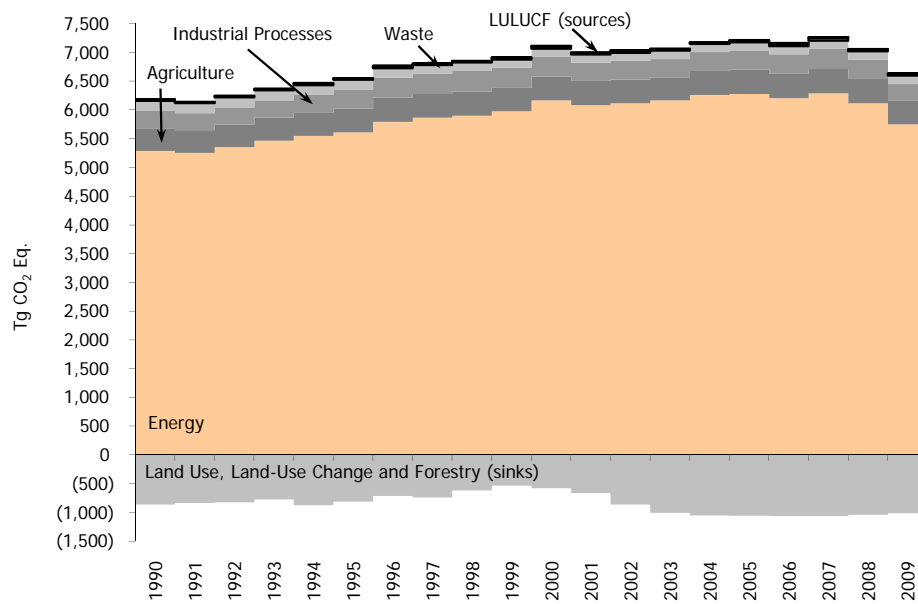


Figure ES-10: 2009 Sources of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ Emissions



Note: Relatively smaller amounts of GWP-weighted emissions are also emitted from the Solvent and Other Product Use sectors

Figure ES-11: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks by Chapter/IPCC Sector

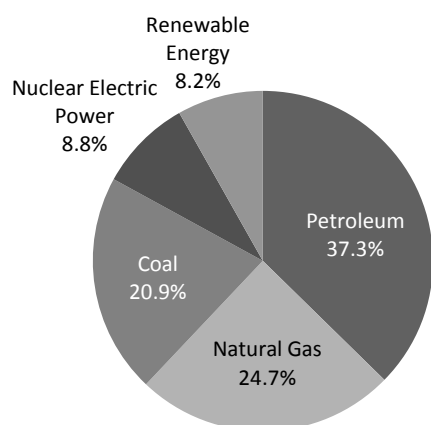


Figure ES-12: 2009 U.S. Energy Consumption by Energy Source

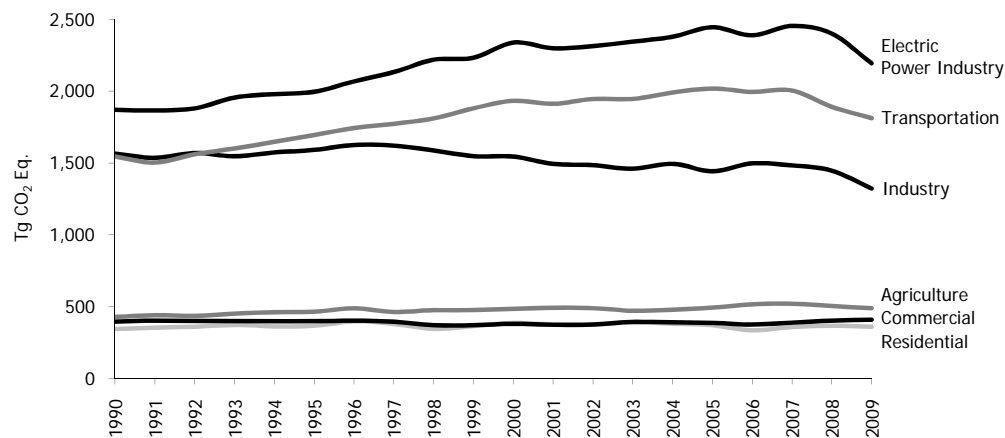


Figure ES-13: Emissions Allocated to Economic Sectors

Note: Does not include U.S. Territories.

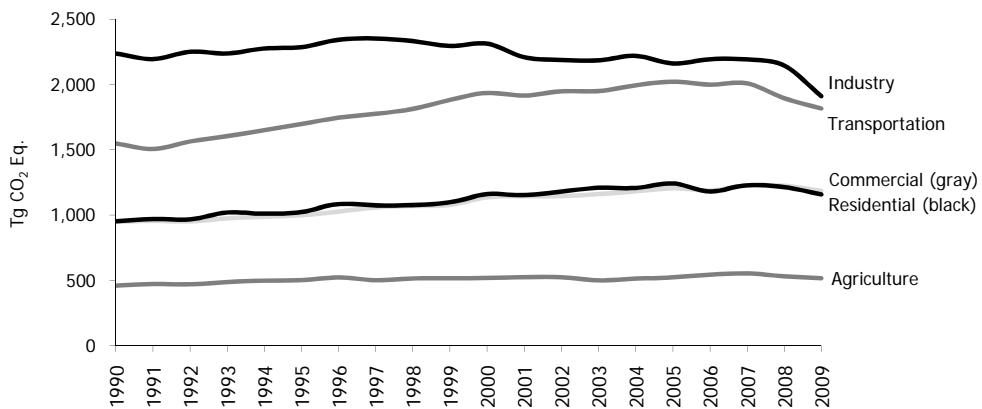


Figure ES-14: Emissions with Electricity Distributed to Economic Sectors
Note: Does not include U.S. Territories.

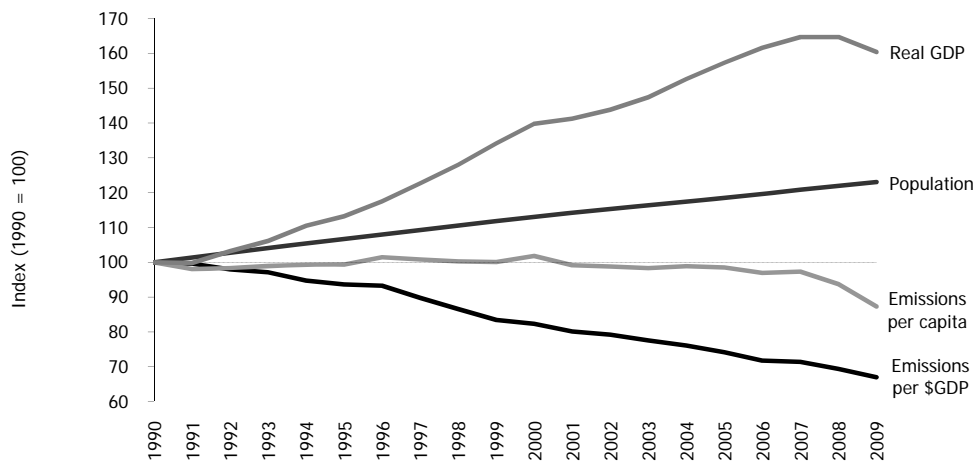


Figure ES-15: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Per Capita and Per Dollar of Gross Domestic Product

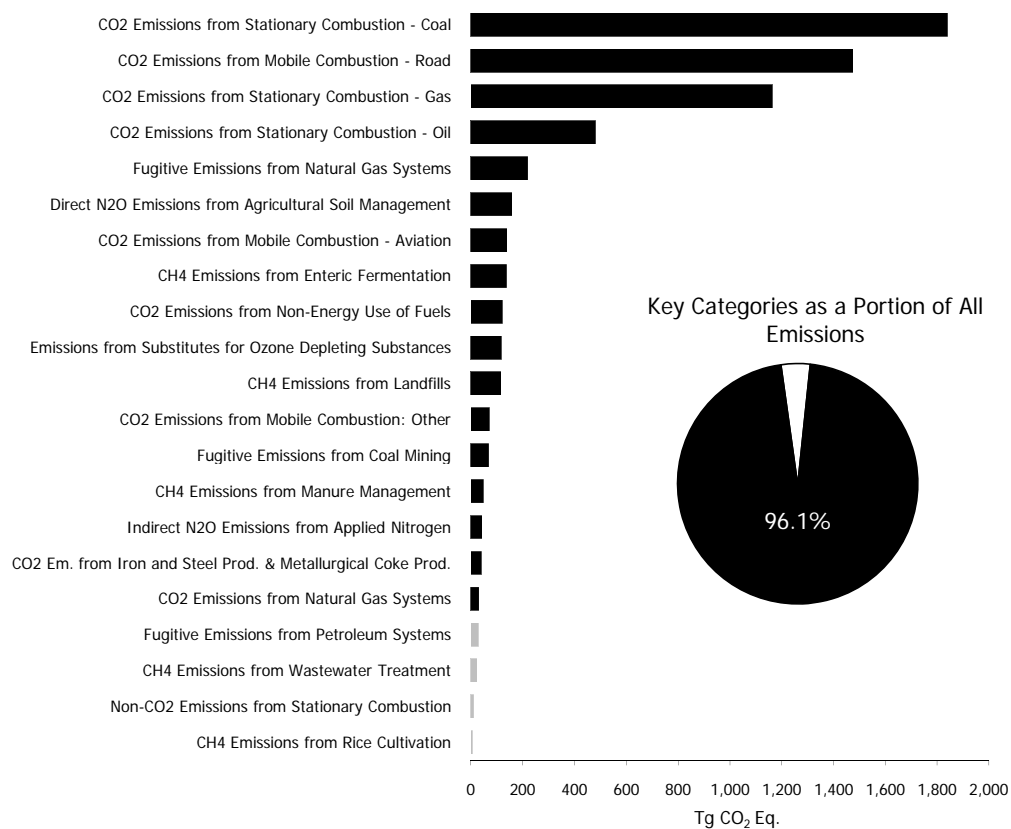


Figure ES-16: 2009 Key Categories

Notes: For a complete discussion of the key category analysis, see Annex 1.

Black bars indicate a Tier 1 level assessment key category.

Gray bars indicate a Tier 2 level assessment key category.

1. Introduction

This report presents estimates by the United States government of U.S. anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions and sinks for the years 1990 through 2009. A summary of these estimates is provided in Table 2.1 and Table 2.2 by gas and source category in the Trends in Greenhouse Gas Emissions chapter. The emission estimates in these tables are presented on both a full molecular mass basis and on a Global Warming Potential (GWP) weighted basis in order to show the relative contribution of each gas to global average radiative forcing.²⁰ This report also discusses the methods and data used to calculate these emission estimates.

In 1992, the United States signed and ratified the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). As stated in Article 2 of the UNFCCC, “The ultimate objective of this Convention and any related legal instruments that the Conference of the Parties may adopt is to achieve, in accordance with the relevant provisions of the Convention, stabilization of greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere at a level that would prevent dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system. Such a level should be achieved within a time-frame sufficient to allow ecosystems to adapt naturally to climate change, to ensure that food production is not threatened and to enable economic development to proceed in a sustainable manner.”^{21,22}

Parties to the Convention, by ratifying, “shall develop, periodically update, publish and make available...national inventories of anthropogenic emissions by sources and removals by sinks of all greenhouse gases not controlled by the Montreal Protocol, using comparable methodologies...”²³ The United States views this report as an opportunity to fulfill these commitments under the UNFCCC.

In 1988, preceding the creation of the UNFCCC, the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) and the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) jointly established the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC). The role of the IPCC is to assess on a comprehensive, objective, open and transparent basis the scientific, technical and socio-economic information relevant to understanding the scientific basis of risk of human-induced climate change, its potential impacts and options for adaptation and mitigation (IPCC 2003). Under Working Group 1 of the IPCC, nearly 140 scientists and national experts from more than thirty countries collaborated in the creation of the Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) to ensure that the emission inventories submitted to the UNFCCC are consistent and comparable between nations. The IPCC accepted the Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines at its Twelfth Session (Mexico City, September 11-13, 1996). This report presents information in accordance with these guidelines. In addition, this Inventory is in accordance with the IPCC Good Practice Guidance and Uncertainty Management in National Greenhouse Gas Inventories and the Good Practice Guidance for Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry, which further expanded upon the methodologies in the Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines. The IPCC has also accepted the 2006 Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006) at its Twenty-Fifth Session (Mauritius, April 2006). The 2006 IPCC Guidelines build on the previous bodies of work and includes new sources and gases “...as well as updates to the previously published methods whenever scientific and technical knowledge have improved since the previous guidelines were issued.” Many of the methodological improvements presented in the 2006 Guidelines have been adopted in this Inventory.

Overall, this inventory of anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions provides a common and consistent mechanism through which Parties to the UNFCCC can estimate emissions and compare the relative contribution of individual sources, gases, and nations to climate change. The inventory provides a national estimate of sources and sinks for the United States, including all states and U.S. territories²⁴. The structure of this report is consistent with the current

²⁰ See the section below entitled *Global Warming Potentials* for an explanation of GWP values.

²¹ The term “anthropogenic”, in this context, refers to greenhouse gas emissions and removals that are a direct result of human activities or are the result of natural processes that have been affected by human activities (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

²² Article 2 of the Framework Convention on Climate Change published by the UNEP/WMO Information Unit on Climate Change. See <<http://unfccc.int>>. (UNEP/WMO 2000)

²³ Article 4(1)(a) of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (also identified in Article 12). Subsequent decisions by the Conference of the Parties elaborated the role of Annex I Parties in preparing national inventories. See <<http://unfccc.int>>.

²⁴ U.S. Territories include American Samoa, Guam, Puerto Rico, U.S. Virgin Islands, Wake Island, and other U.S. Pacific Islands.

[BEGIN BOX]

Box 1-1: Methodological approach for estimating and reporting U.S. emissions and sinks

In following the UNFCCC requirement under Article 4.1 to develop and submit national greenhouse gas emissions inventories, the emissions and sinks presented in this report are organized by source and sink categories and calculated using internationally-accepted methods provided by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC).²⁵ Additionally, the calculated emissions and sinks in a given year for the U.S. are presented in a common manner in line with the UNFCCC reporting guidelines for the reporting of inventories under this international agreement.²⁶ The use of consistent methods to calculate emissions and sinks by all nations providing their inventories to the UNFCCC ensures that these reports are comparable. In this regard, U.S. emissions and sinks reported in this inventory report are comparable to emissions and sinks reported by other countries. Emissions and sinks provided in this inventory do not preclude alternative examinations, but rather this inventory report presents emissions and sinks in a common format consistent with how countries are to report inventories under the UNFCCC. The report itself follows this standardized format, and provides an explanation of the IPCC methods used to calculate emissions and sinks, and the manner in which those calculations are conducted.

[END BOX]

1.1. *Background Information*

Science

For over the past 200 years, the burning of fossil fuels such as coal and oil, deforestation, and other sources have caused the concentrations of heat-trapping "greenhouse gases" to increase significantly in our atmosphere. These gases absorb some of the energy being radiated from the surface of the earth and trap it in the atmosphere, essentially acting like a blanket that makes the earth's surface warmer than it would be otherwise.

Greenhouse gases are necessary to life as we know it, because without them the planet's surface would be about 60 °F cooler than present. But, as the concentrations of these gases continue to increase in the atmosphere, the Earth's temperature is climbing above past levels. According to NOAA and NASA data, the Earth's average surface temperature has increased by about 1.2 to 1.4 °F since 1900. The ten warmest years on record (since 1850) have all occurred in the past 13 years (EPA 2009). Most of the warming in recent decades is very likely the result of human activities. Other aspects of the climate are also changing such as rainfall patterns, snow and ice cover, and sea level.

If greenhouse gases continue to increase, climate models predict that the average temperature at the Earth's surface could increase from 2.0 to 11.5 °F above 1990 levels by the end of this century (IPCC 2007). Scientists are certain that human activities are changing the composition of the atmosphere, and that increasing the concentration of greenhouse gases will change the planet's climate. But they are not sure by how much it will change, at what rate it will change, or what the exact effects will be.²⁷

Greenhouse Gases

Although the Earth's atmosphere consists mainly of oxygen and nitrogen, neither plays a significant role in enhancing the greenhouse effect because both are essentially transparent to terrestrial radiation. The greenhouse effect is primarily a function of the concentration of water vapor, carbon dioxide (CO₂), and other trace gases in the

²⁵ See <<http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/public/index.html>>.

²⁶ See <http://unfccc.int/national_reports/annex_i_ghg_inventories/national_inventories_submissions/items/5270.php>

²⁷ For more information see <<http://www.epa.gov/climatechange/science>>

atmosphere that absorb the terrestrial radiation leaving the surface of the Earth (IPCC 2001). Changes in the atmospheric concentrations of these greenhouse gases can alter the balance of energy transfers between the atmosphere, space, land, and the oceans.²⁸ A gauge of these changes is called radiative forcing, which is a measure of the influence a factor has in altering the balance of incoming and outgoing energy in the Earth-atmosphere system (IPCC 2001). Holding everything else constant, increases in greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere will produce positive radiative forcing (i.e., a net increase in the absorption of energy by the Earth).

Climate change can be driven by changes in the atmospheric concentrations of a number of radiatively active gases and aerosols. We have clear evidence that human activities have affected concentrations, distributions and life cycles of these gases (IPCC 1996).

Naturally occurring greenhouse gases include water vapor, CO₂, methane (CH₄), nitrous oxide (N₂O), and ozone (O₃). Several classes of halogenated substances that contain fluorine, chlorine, or bromine are also greenhouse gases, but they are, for the most part, solely a product of industrial activities. Chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) and hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs) are halocarbons that contain chlorine, while halocarbons that contain bromine are referred to as bromofluorocarbons (i.e., halons). As stratospheric ozone depleting substances, CFCs, HCFCs, and halons are covered under the Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer. The UNFCCC defers to this earlier international treaty. Consequently, Parties to the UNFCCC are not required to include these gases in national greenhouse gas inventories.²⁹ Some other fluorine-containing halogenated substances—hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs), perfluorocarbons (PFCs), and sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆)—do not deplete stratospheric ozone but are potent greenhouse gases. These latter substances are addressed by the UNFCCC and accounted for in national greenhouse gas inventories.

There are also several gases that, although they do not have a commonly agreed upon direct radiative forcing effect, do influence the global radiation budget. These tropospheric gases include carbon monoxide (CO), nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), sulfur dioxide (SO₂), and tropospheric (ground level) ozone O₃. Tropospheric ozone is formed by two precursor pollutants, volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and nitrogen oxides (NO_x) in the presence of ultraviolet light (sunlight). Aerosols are extremely small particles or liquid droplets that are often composed of sulfur compounds, carbonaceous combustion products, crustal materials and other human induced pollutants. They can affect the absorptive characteristics of the atmosphere. Comparatively, however, the level of scientific understanding of aerosols is still very low (IPCC 2001).

CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O are continuously emitted to and removed from the atmosphere by natural processes on Earth. Anthropogenic activities, however, can cause additional quantities of these and other greenhouse gases to be emitted or sequestered, thereby changing their global average atmospheric concentrations. Natural activities such as respiration by plants or animals and seasonal cycles of plant growth and decay are examples of processes that only cycle carbon or nitrogen between the atmosphere and organic biomass. Such processes, except when directly or indirectly perturbed out of equilibrium by anthropogenic activities, generally do not alter average atmospheric greenhouse gas concentrations over decadal timeframes. Climatic changes resulting from anthropogenic activities, however, could have positive or negative feedback effects on these natural systems. Atmospheric concentrations of these gases, along with their rates of growth and atmospheric lifetimes, are presented in Table 1-1.

Table 1-1: Global Atmospheric Concentration, Rate of Concentration Change, and Atmospheric Lifetime (years) of Selected Greenhouse Gases

Atmospheric Variable	CO ₂	CH ₄	N ₂ O	SF ₆	CF ₄
Pre-industrial atmospheric concentration	278 ppm	0.715 ppm	0.270 ppm	0 ppt	40 ppt
Atmospheric concentration	385 ppm	1.741-1.865 ppm ^a	0.321-0.322 ppm ^a	5.6 ppt	74 ppt
Rate of concentration change	1.4 ppm/yr	0.005 ppm/yr ^b	0.26%/yr	Linear ^c	Linear ^c
Atmospheric lifetime (years)	50-200 ^d	12 ^e	114 ^e	3,200	>50,000

Source: Pre-industrial atmospheric concentrations and rate of concentration changes for all gases are from IPCC (2007). The current atmospheric concentration for CO₂ is from NOAA/ESRL (2009).

²⁸ For more on the science of climate change, see NRC (2001).

²⁹ Emissions estimates of CFCs, HCFCs, halons and other ozone-depleting substances are included in this document for informational purposes.

^a The range is the annual arithmetic averages from a mid-latitude Northern-Hemisphere site and a mid-latitude Southern-Hemisphere site for October 2006 through September 2007 (CDIAC 2009).

^b The growth rate for atmospheric CH₄ has been decreasing from 1.4 ppb/yr in 1984 to less than 0 ppb/yr in 2001, 2004, and 2005.

^c IPCC (2007) identifies the rate of concentration change for SF₆ and CF₄ as linear.

^d No single lifetime can be defined for CO₂ because of the different rates of uptake by different removal processes.

^e This lifetime has been defined as an “adjustment time” that takes into account the indirect effect of the gas on its own residence time.

A brief description of each greenhouse gas, its sources, and its role in the atmosphere is given below. The following section then explains the concept of GWPs, which are assigned to individual gases as a measure of their relative average global radiative forcing effect.

Water Vapor (H₂O). Overall, the most abundant and dominant greenhouse gas in the atmosphere is water vapor. Water vapor is neither long-lived nor well mixed in the atmosphere, varying spatially from 0 to 2 percent (IPCC 1996). In addition, atmospheric water can exist in several physical states including gaseous, liquid, and solid. Human activities are not believed to affect directly the average global concentration of water vapor, but, the radiative forcing produced by the increased concentrations of other greenhouse gases may indirectly affect the hydrologic cycle. While a warmer atmosphere has an increased water holding capacity, increased concentrations of water vapor affects the formation of clouds, which can both absorb and reflect solar and terrestrial radiation. Aircraft contrails, which consist of water vapor and other aircraft emittants, are similar to clouds in their radiative forcing effects (IPCC 1999).

Carbon Dioxide. In nature, carbon is cycled between various atmospheric, oceanic, land biotic, marine biotic, and mineral reservoirs. The largest fluxes occur between the atmosphere and terrestrial biota, and between the atmosphere and surface water of the oceans. In the atmosphere, carbon predominantly exists in its oxidized form as CO₂. Atmospheric CO₂ is part of this global carbon cycle, and therefore its fate is a complex function of geochemical and biological processes. CO₂ concentrations in the atmosphere increased from approximately 280 parts per million by volume (ppmv) in pre-industrial times to 385 ppmv in 2008, a 37.5 percent increase (IPCC 2007 and NOAA/ESRL 2009).^{30,31} The IPCC definitively states that “the present atmospheric CO₂ increase is caused by anthropogenic emissions of CO₂” (IPCC 2001). The predominant source of anthropogenic CO₂ emissions is the combustion of fossil fuels. Forest clearing, other biomass burning, and some non-energy production processes (e.g., cement production) also emit notable quantities of CO₂. In its fourth assessment, the IPCC stated “most of the observed increase in global average temperatures since the mid-20th century is very likely due to the observed increased in anthropogenic greenhouse gas concentrations,” of which CO₂ is the most important (IPCC 2007).

Methane. CH₄ is primarily produced through anaerobic decomposition of organic matter in biological systems. Agricultural processes such as wetland rice cultivation, enteric fermentation in animals, and the decomposition of animal wastes emit CH₄, as does the decomposition of municipal solid wastes. CH₄ is also emitted during the production and distribution of natural gas and petroleum, and is released as a by-product of coal mining and incomplete fossil fuel combustion. Atmospheric concentrations of CH₄ have increased by about 143 percent since 1750, from a pre-industrial value of about 722 ppb to 1,741-1,865 ppb in 2007³², although the rate of increase has been declining. The IPCC has estimated that slightly more than half of the current CH₄ flux to the atmosphere is anthropogenic, from human activities such as agriculture, fossil fuel use, and waste disposal (IPCC 2007).

CH₄ is removed from the atmosphere through a reaction with the hydroxyl radical (OH) and is ultimately converted to CO₂. Minor removal processes also include reaction with chlorine in the marine boundary layer, a soil sink, and stratospheric reactions. Increasing emissions of CH₄ reduce the concentration of OH, a feedback that may increase the atmospheric lifetime of CH₄ (IPCC 2001).

Nitrous Oxide. Anthropogenic sources of N₂O emissions include agricultural soils, especially production of

³⁰ The pre-industrial period is considered as the time preceding the year 1750 (IPCC 2001).

³¹ Carbon dioxide concentrations during the last 1,000 years of the pre-industrial period (i.e., 750-1750), a time of relative climate stability, fluctuated by about ±10 ppmv around 280 ppmv (IPCC 2001).

³² The range is the annual arithmetic averages from a mid-latitude Northern-Hemisphere site and a mid-latitude Southern-Hemisphere site for October 2006 through September 2007 (CDIAC 2009)

nitrogen-fixing crops and forages, the use of synthetic and manure fertilizers, and manure deposition by livestock; fossil fuel combustion, especially from mobile combustion; adipic (nylon) and nitric acid production; wastewater treatment and waste incineration; and biomass burning. The atmospheric concentration of N₂O has increased by 18 percent since 1750, from a pre-industrial value of about 270 ppb to 321-322 ppb in 2007³³, a concentration that has not been exceeded during the last thousand years. N₂O is primarily removed from the atmosphere by the photolytic action of sunlight in the stratosphere (IPCC 2007).

Ozone. Ozone is present in both the upper stratosphere,³⁴ where it shields the Earth from harmful levels of ultraviolet radiation, and at lower concentrations in the troposphere,³⁵ where it is the main component of anthropogenic photochemical “smog.” During the last two decades, emissions of anthropogenic chlorine and bromine-containing halocarbons, such as CFCs, have depleted stratospheric ozone concentrations. This loss of ozone in the stratosphere has resulted in negative radiative forcing, representing an indirect effect of anthropogenic emissions of chlorine and bromine compounds (IPCC 1996). The depletion of stratospheric ozone and its radiative forcing was expected to reach a maximum in about 2000 before starting to recover. As of IPCC’s fourth assessment, “whether or not recently observed changes in ozone trends are already indicative of recovery of the global ozone layer is not yet clear.” (IPCC 2007)

The past increase in tropospheric ozone, which is also a greenhouse gas, is estimated to provide the third largest increase in direct radiative forcing since the pre-industrial era, behind CO₂ and CH₄. Tropospheric ozone is produced from complex chemical reactions of volatile organic compounds mixing with NO_x in the presence of sunlight. The tropospheric concentrations of ozone and these other pollutants are short-lived and, therefore, spatially variable. (IPCC 2001)

Halocarbons, Perfluorocarbons, and Sulfur Hexafluoride. Halocarbons are, for the most part, man-made chemicals that have both direct and indirect radiative forcing effects. Halocarbons that contain chlorine (CFCs, HCFCs, methyl chloroform, and carbon tetrachloride) and bromine (halons, methyl bromide, and hydrobromofluorocarbons [HFCs]) result in stratospheric ozone depletion and are therefore controlled under the Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer. Although CFCs and HCFCs include potent global warming gases, their net radiative forcing effect on the atmosphere is reduced because they cause stratospheric ozone depletion, which itself is an important greenhouse gas in addition to shielding the Earth from harmful levels of ultraviolet radiation. Under the Montreal Protocol, the United States phased out the production and importation of halons by 1994 and of CFCs by 1996. Under the Copenhagen Amendments to the Protocol, a cap was placed on the production and importation of HCFCs by non-Article 5³⁶ countries beginning in 1996, and then followed by a complete phase-out by the year 2030. While ozone depleting gases covered under the Montreal Protocol and its Amendments are not covered by the UNFCCC; they are reported in this inventory under Annex 6.2 of this report for informational purposes.

HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ are not ozone depleting substances, and therefore are not covered under the Montreal Protocol. They are, however, powerful greenhouse gases. HFCs are primarily used as replacements for ozone depleting substances but also emitted as a by-product of the HCFC-22 manufacturing process. Currently, they have a small aggregate radiative forcing impact, but it is anticipated that their contribution to overall radiative forcing will increase (IPCC 2001). PFCs and SF₆ are predominantly emitted from various industrial processes including aluminum smelting, semiconductor manufacturing, electric power transmission and distribution, and magnesium

³³ The range is the annual arithmetic averages from a mid-latitude Northern-Hemisphere site and a mid-latitude Southern-Hemisphere site for October 2006 through September 2007 (CDIAC 2009).

³⁴ The stratosphere is the layer from the troposphere up to roughly 50 kilometers. In the lower regions the temperature is nearly constant but in the upper layer the temperature increases rapidly because of sunlight absorption by the ozone layer. The ozone-layer is the part of the stratosphere from 19 kilometers up to 48 kilometers where the concentration of ozone reaches up to 10 parts per million.

³⁵ The troposphere is the layer from the ground up to 11 kilometers near the poles and up to 16 kilometers in equatorial regions (i.e., the lowest layer of the atmosphere where people live). It contains roughly 80 percent of the mass of all gases in the atmosphere and is the site for most weather processes, including most of the water vapor and clouds.

³⁶ Article 5 of the Montreal Protocol covers several groups of countries, especially developing countries, with low consumption rates of ozone depleting substances. Developing countries with per capita consumption of less than 0.3 kg of certain ozone depleting substances (weighted by their ozone depleting potential) receive financial assistance and a grace period of ten additional years in the phase-out of ozone depleting substances.

casting. Currently, the radiative forcing impact of PFCs and SF₆ is also small, but they have a significant growth rate, extremely long atmospheric lifetimes, and are strong absorbers of infrared radiation, and therefore have the potential to influence climate far into the future (IPCC 2001).

Carbon Monoxide. Carbon monoxide has an indirect radiative forcing effect by elevating concentrations of CH₄ and tropospheric ozone through chemical reactions with other atmospheric constituents (e.g., the hydroxyl radical, OH) that would otherwise assist in destroying CH₄ and tropospheric ozone. Carbon monoxide is created when carbon-containing fuels are burned incompletely. Through natural processes in the atmosphere, it is eventually oxidized to CO₂. Carbon monoxide concentrations are both short-lived in the atmosphere and spatially variable.

Nitrogen Oxides. The primary climate change effects of nitrogen oxides (i.e., NO and NO₂) are indirect and result from their role in promoting the formation of ozone in the troposphere and, to a lesser degree, lower stratosphere, where it has positive radiative forcing effects.³⁷ Additionally, NO_x emissions from aircraft are also likely to decrease CH₄ concentrations, thus having a negative radiative forcing effect (IPCC 1999). Nitrogen oxides are created from lightning, soil microbial activity, biomass burning (both natural and anthropogenic fires) fuel combustion, and, in the stratosphere, from the photo-degradation of N₂O. Concentrations of NO_x are both relatively short-lived in the atmosphere and spatially variable.

Nonmethane Volatile Organic Compounds (NMVOCs). Non-CH₄ volatile organic compounds include substances such as propane, butane, and ethane. These compounds participate, along with NO_x, in the formation of tropospheric ozone and other photochemical oxidants. NMVOCs are emitted primarily from transportation and industrial processes, as well as biomass burning and non-industrial consumption of organic solvents. Concentrations of NMVOCs tend to be both short-lived in the atmosphere and spatially variable.

Aerosols. Aerosols are extremely small particles or liquid droplets found in the atmosphere. They can be produced by natural events such as dust storms and volcanic activity, or by anthropogenic processes such as fuel combustion and biomass burning. Aerosols affect radiative forcing differently than greenhouse gases, and their radiative effects occur through direct and indirect mechanisms: directly by scattering and absorbing solar radiation; and indirectly by increasing droplet counts that modify the formation, precipitation efficiency, and radiative properties of clouds. Aerosols are removed from the atmosphere relatively rapidly by precipitation. Because aerosols generally have short atmospheric lifetimes, and have concentrations and compositions that vary regionally, spatially, and temporally, their contributions to radiative forcing are difficult to quantify (IPCC 2001).

The indirect radiative forcing from aerosols is typically divided into two effects. The first effect involves decreased droplet size and increased droplet concentration resulting from an increase in airborne aerosols. The second effect involves an increase in the water content and lifetime of clouds due to the effect of reduced droplet size on precipitation efficiency (IPCC 2001). Recent research has placed a greater focus on the second indirect radiative forcing effect of aerosols.

Various categories of aerosols exist, including naturally produced aerosols such as soil dust, sea salt, biogenic aerosols, sulfates, and volcanic aerosols, and anthropogenically manufactured aerosols such as industrial dust and carbonaceous³⁸ aerosols (e.g., black carbon, organic carbon) from transportation, coal combustion, cement manufacturing, waste incineration, and biomass burning.

The net effect of aerosols on radiative forcing is believed to be negative (i.e., net cooling effect on the climate), although because they remain in the atmosphere for only days to weeks, their concentrations respond rapidly to changes in emissions.³⁹ Locally, the negative radiative forcing effects of aerosols can offset the positive forcing of greenhouse gases (IPCC 1996). “However, the aerosol effects do not cancel the global-scale effects of the much longer-lived greenhouse gases, and significant climate changes can still result” (IPCC 1996).

The IPCC’s Third Assessment Report notes that “the indirect radiative effect of aerosols is now understood to also

³⁷ NO_x emissions injected higher in the stratosphere, primarily from fuel combustion emissions from high altitude supersonic aircraft, can lead to stratospheric ozone depletion.

³⁸ Carbonaceous aerosols are aerosols that are comprised mainly of organic substances and forms of black carbon (or soot) (IPCC 2001).

³⁹ Volcanic activity can inject significant quantities of aerosol producing sulfur dioxide and other sulfur compounds into the stratosphere, which can result in a longer negative forcing effect (i.e., a few years) (IPCC 1996).

encompass effects on ice and mixed-phase clouds, but the magnitude of any such indirect effect is not known, although it is likely to be positive” (IPCC 2001). Additionally, current research suggests that another constituent of aerosols, black carbon, has a positive radiative forcing, and that its presence “in the atmosphere above highly reflective surfaces such as snow and ice, or clouds, may cause a significant positive radiative forcing (IPCC 2007). The primary anthropogenic emission sources of black carbon include diesel exhaust and open biomass burning.

Global Warming Potentials

A global warming potential is a quantified measure of the globally averaged relative radiative forcing impacts of a particular greenhouse gas (see Table 1-2). It is defined as the ratio of the time-integrated radiative forcing from the instantaneous release of 1 kilogram (kg) of a trace substance relative to that of 1 kg of a reference gas (IPCC 2001). Direct radiative effects occur when the gas itself absorbs radiation. Indirect radiative forcing occurs when chemical transformations involving the original gas produce a gas or gases that are greenhouse gases, or when a gas influences other radiatively important processes such as the atmospheric lifetimes of other gases. The reference gas used is CO₂, and therefore GWP weighted emissions are measured in teragrams of CO₂ equivalent (Tg CO₂ Eq.)⁴⁰ The relationship between gigagrams (Gg) of a gas and Tg CO₂ Eq. can be expressed as follows:

$$\text{Tg CO}_2 \text{ Eq} = (\text{Gg of gas}) \times (\text{GWP}) \times \left(\frac{\text{Tg}}{1,000 \text{ Gg}} \right)$$

where,

Tg CO₂ Eq. = Teragrams of CO₂ Equivalents

Gg = Gigagrams (equivalent to a thousand metric tons)

GWP = Global Warming Potential

Tg = Teragrams

GWP values allow for a comparison of the impacts of emissions and reductions of different gases. According to the IPCC, GWPs typically have an uncertainty of ±35 percent. The parties to the UNFCCC have also agreed to use GWPs based upon a 100-year time horizon although other time horizon values are available.

Greenhouse gas emissions and removals should be presented on a gas-by-gas basis in units of mass... In addition, consistent with decision 2/CP.3, Parties should report aggregate emissions and removals of greenhouse gases, expressed in CO₂ equivalent terms at summary inventory level, using GWP values provided by the IPCC in its Second Assessment Report... based on the effects of greenhouse gases over a 100-year time horizon.⁴¹

Greenhouse gases with relatively long atmospheric lifetimes (e.g., CO₂, CH₄, N₂O, HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆) tend to be evenly distributed throughout the atmosphere, and consequently global average concentrations can be determined. The short-lived gases such as water vapor, carbon monoxide, tropospheric ozone, ozone precursors (e.g., NO_x, and NMVOCs), and tropospheric aerosols (e.g., SO₂ products and carbonaceous particles), however, vary regionally, and consequently it is difficult to quantify their global radiative forcing impacts. No GWP values are attributed to these gases that are short-lived and spatially inhomogeneous in the atmosphere.

Table 1-2: Global Warming Potentials and Atmospheric Lifetimes (Years) Used in this Report

Gas	Atmospheric Lifetime	GWP ^a
CO ₂	50-200	1

⁴⁰ Carbon comprises 12/44^{ths} of carbon dioxide by weight.

⁴¹ Framework Convention on Climate Change; <<http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/cop8/08.pdf>>; 1 November 2002; Report of the Conference of the Parties at its eighth session; held at New Delhi from 23 October to 1 November 2002; Addendum; Part One: Action taken by the Conference of the Parties at its eighth session; Decision -/CP.8; Communications from Parties included in Annex I to the Convention: Guidelines for the Preparation of National Communications by Parties Included in Annex I to the Convention, Part 1: UNFCCC reporting guidelines on annual inventories; p. 7. (UNFCCC 2003)

CH ₄ ^b	12±3	21
N ₂ O	120	310
HFC-23	264	11,700
HFC-32	5.6	650
HFC-125	32.6	2,800
HFC-134a	14.6	1,300
HFC-143a	48.3	3,800
HFC-152a	1.5	140
HFC-227ea	36.5	2,900
HFC-236fa	209	6,300
HFC-4310mee	17.1	1,300
CF ₄	50,000	6,500
C ₂ F ₆	10,000	9,200
C ₄ F ₁₀	2,600	7,000
C ₆ F ₁₄	3,200	7,400
SF ₆	3,200	23,900

Source: (IPCC 1996)

^a 100-year time horizon

^b The GWP of CH₄ includes the direct effects and those indirect effects due to the production of tropospheric ozone and stratospheric water vapor. The indirect effect due to the production of CO₂ is not included.

[BEGIN BOX]

Box 1-2: The IPCC Fourth Assessment Report and Global Warming Potentials

In 2007, the IPCC published its Fourth Assessment Report (AR4), which provided an updated and more comprehensive scientific assessment of climate change. Within this report, the GWPs of several gases were revised relative to the SAR and the IPCC's Third Assessment Report (TAR) (IPCC 2001). Thus the GWPs used in this report have been updated twice by the IPCC; although the SAR GWPs are used throughout this report, it is interesting to review the changes to the GWPs and the impact such improved understanding has on the total GWP-weighted emissions of the United States. Since the SAR and TAR, the IPCC has applied an improved calculation of CO₂ radiative forcing and an improved CO₂ response function. The GWPs are drawn from IPCC/TEAP (2005) and the TAR, with updates for those cases where new laboratory or radiative transfer results have been published. Additionally, the atmospheric lifetimes of some gases have been recalculated. In addition, the values for radiative forcing and lifetimes have been recalculated for a variety of halocarbons, which were not presented in the SAR. Table 1-3 presents the new GWPs, relative to those presented in the SAR.

Table 1-3: Comparison of 100-Year GWPs

Gas	SAR	TAR	AR4	Change from SAR	
				TAR	AR4
CO ₂	1	1	1	NC	0
CH ₄ *	21	23	25	2	4
N ₂ O	310	296	298	(14)	(12)
HFC-23	11,700	12,000	14,800	300	3,100
HFC-32	650	550	675	(100)	25
HFC-125	2,800	3,400	3,500	600	700
HFC-134a	1,300	1,300	1,430	NC	130
HFC-143a	3,800	4,300	4,470	500	670
HFC-152a	140	120	124	(20)	(16)
HFC-227ea	2,900	3,500	3,220	600	320
HFC-236fa	6,300	9,400	9,810	3,100	3,510
HFC-4310mee	1,300	1,500	1,640	200	340
CF ₄	6,500	5,700	7,390	(800)	890
C ₂ F ₆	9,200	11,900	12,200	2,700	3,000

C ₄ F ₁₀	7,000	8,600	8,860	1,600	1,860
C ₆ F ₁₄	7,400	9,000	9,300	1,600	1,900
SF ₆	23,900	22,200	22,800	(1,700)	(1,100)

Source: (IPCC 2007, IPCC 2001)

NC (No Change)

Note: Parentheses indicate negative values.

* The GWP of CH₄ includes the direct effects and those indirect effects due to the production of tropospheric ozone and stratospheric water vapor. The indirect effect due to the production of CO₂ is not included.

To comply with international reporting standards under the UNFCCC, official emission estimates are reported by the United States using SAR GWP values. The UNFCCC reporting guidelines for national inventories⁴² were updated in 2002 but continue to require the use of GWPs from the SAR so that current estimates of aggregate greenhouse gas emissions for 1990 through 2009 are consistent and comparable with estimates developed prior to the publication of the TAR and AR4. For informational purposes, emission estimates that use the updated GWPs are presented in detail in Annex 6.1 of this report. All estimates provided throughout this report are also presented in unweighted units.

[END BOX]

1.2. Institutional Arrangements

The U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), in cooperation with other U.S. government agencies, prepares the Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks. A wide range of agencies and individuals are involved in supplying data to, reviewing, or preparing portions of the U.S. Inventory—including federal and state government authorities, research and academic institutions, industry associations, and private consultants.

Within EPA, the Office of Atmospheric Programs (OAP) is the lead office responsible for the emission calculations provided in the Inventory, as well as the completion of the National Inventory Report and the Common Reporting Format tables. The Office of Transportation and Air Quality (OTAQ) is also involved in calculating emissions for the Inventory. While the U.S. Department of State officially submits the annual Inventory to the UNFCCC, EPA's OAP serves as the focal point for technical questions and comments on the U.S. Inventory. The staff of OAP and OTAQ coordinates the annual methodological choice, activity data collection, and emission calculations at the individual source category level. Within OAP, an inventory coordinator compiles the entire Inventory into the proper reporting format for submission to the UNFCCC, and is responsible for the collection and consistency of cross-cutting issues in the Inventory.

Several other government agencies contribute to the collection and analysis of the underlying activity data used in the Inventory calculations. Formal relationships exist between EPA and other U.S. agencies that provide official data for use in the Inventory. The U.S. Department of Energy's Energy Information Administration provides national fuel consumption data and the U.S. Department of Defense provides military fuel consumption and bunker fuels. Informal relationships also exist with other U.S. agencies to provide activity data for use in EPA's emission calculations. These include: the U.S. Department of Agriculture, the U.S. Geological Survey, the Federal Highway Administration, the Department of Transportation, the Bureau of Transportation Statistics, the Department of Commerce, the National Agricultural Statistics Service, and the Federal Aviation Administration. Academic and research centers also provide activity data and calculations to EPA, as well as individual companies participating in voluntary outreach efforts with EPA. Finally, the U.S. Department of State officially submits the Inventory to the UNFCCC each April.

1.3. Inventory Process

EPA has a decentralized approach to preparing the annual U.S. Inventory, which consists of a National Inventory Report (NIR) and Common Reporting Format (CRF) tables. The Inventory coordinator at EPA is responsible for

⁴² See <<http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/cop8/08.pdf>>.

compiling all emission estimates, and ensuring consistency and quality throughout the NIR and CRF tables. Emission calculations for individual sources are the responsibility of individual source leads, who are most familiar with each source category and the unique characteristics of its emissions profile. The individual source leads determine the most appropriate methodology and collect the best activity data to use in the emission calculations, based upon their expertise in the source category, as well as coordinating with researchers and contractors familiar with the sources. A multi-stage process for collecting information from the individual source leads and producing the Inventory is undertaken annually to compile all information and data.

Methodology Development, Data Collection, and Emissions and Sink Estimation

Source leads at EPA collect input data and, as necessary, evaluate or develop the estimation methodology for the individual source categories. For most source categories, the methodology for the previous year is applied to the new “current” year of the Inventory, and inventory analysts collect any new data or update data that have changed from the previous year. If estimates for a new source category are being developed for the first time, or if the methodology is changing for an existing source category (e.g., the United States is implementing a higher Tiered approach for that source category), then the source category lead will develop a new methodology, gather the most appropriate activity data and emission factors (or in some cases direct emission measurements) for the entire time series, and conduct a special source-specific peer review process involving relevant experts from industry, government, and universities.

Once the methodology is in place and the data are collected, the individual source leads calculate emissions and sink estimates. The source leads then update or create the relevant text and accompanying annexes for the Inventory. Source leads are also responsible for completing the relevant sectoral background tables of the Common Reporting Format, conducting quality assurance and quality control (QA/QC) checks, and uncertainty analyses.

Summary Spreadsheet Compilation and Data Storage

The inventory coordinator at EPA collects the source categories’ descriptive text and Annexes, and also aggregates the emission estimates into a summary spreadsheet that links the individual source category spreadsheets together. This summary sheet contains all of the essential data in one central location, in formats commonly used in the Inventory document. In addition to the data from each source category, national trend and related data are also gathered in the summary sheet for use in the Executive Summary, Introduction, and Recent Trends sections of the Inventory report. Electronic copies of each year’s summary spreadsheet, which contains all the emission and sink estimates for the United States, are kept on a central server at EPA under the jurisdiction of the Inventory coordinator.

National Inventory Report Preparation

The NIR is compiled from the sections developed by each individual source lead. In addition, the inventory coordinator prepares a brief overview of each chapter that summarizes the emissions from all sources discussed in the chapters. The inventory coordinator then carries out a key category analysis for the Inventory, consistent with the IPCC Good Practice Guidance, IPCC Good Practice Guidance for Land Use, Land Use Change and Forestry, and in accordance with the reporting requirements of the UNFCCC. Also at this time, the Introduction, Executive Summary, and Recent Trends sections are drafted, to reflect the trends for the most recent year of the current Inventory. The analysis of trends necessitates gathering supplemental data, including weather and temperature conditions, economic activity and gross domestic product, population, atmospheric conditions, and the annual consumption of electricity, energy, and fossil fuels. Changes in these data are used to explain the trends observed in greenhouse gas emissions in the United States. Furthermore, specific factors that affect individual sectors are researched and discussed. Many of the factors that affect emissions are included in the Inventory document as separate analyses or side discussions in boxes within the text. Text boxes are also created to examine the data aggregated in different ways than in the remainder of the document, such as a focus on transportation activities or emissions from electricity generation. The document is prepared to match the specification of the UNFCCC reporting guidelines for National Inventory Reports.

Common Reporting Format Table Compilation

The CRF tables are compiled from individual tables completed by each individual source lead, which contain source

emissions and activity data. The inventory coordinator integrates the source data into the UNFCCC's "CRF Reporter" for the United States, assuring consistency across all sectoral tables. The summary reports for emissions, methods, and emission factors used, the overview tables for completeness and quality of estimates, the recalculation tables, the notation key completion tables, and the emission trends tables are then completed by the inventory coordinator. Internal automated quality checks on the CRF Reporter, as well as reviews by the source leads, are completed for the entire time series of CRF tables before submission.

QA/QC and Uncertainty

QA/QC and uncertainty analyses are supervised by the QA/QC and Uncertainty coordinators, who have general oversight over the implementation of the QA/QC plan and the overall uncertainty analysis for the Inventory (see sections on QA/QC and Uncertainty, below). These coordinators work closely with the source leads to ensure that a consistent QA/QC plan and uncertainty analysis is implemented across all inventory sources. The inventory QA/QC plan, detailed in a following section, is consistent with the quality assurance procedures outlined by EPA and IPCC.

Expert and Public Review Periods

During the Expert Review period, a first draft of the document is sent to a select list of technical experts outside of EPA. The purpose of the Expert Review is to encourage feedback on the methodological and data sources used in the current Inventory, especially for sources which have experienced any changes since the previous Inventory.

Once comments are received and addressed, a second draft of the document is released for public review by publishing a notice in the U.S. Federal Register and posting the document on the EPA Web site. The Public Review period allows for a 30 day comment period and is open to the entire U.S. public.

Final Submittal to UNFCCC and Document Printing

After the final revisions to incorporate any comments from the Expert Review and Public Review periods, EPA prepares the final National Inventory Report and the accompanying Common Reporting Format Reporter database. The U.S. Department of State sends the official submission of the U.S. Inventory to the UNFCCC. The document is then formatted for printing, posted online, printed by the U.S. Government Printing Office, and made available for the public.

1.4. Methodology and Data Sources

Emissions of greenhouse gases from various source and sink categories have been estimated using methodologies that are consistent with the Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). In addition, the United States references the additional guidance provided in the IPCC Good Practice Guidance and Uncertainty Management in National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2000), the IPCC Good Practice Guidance for Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (IPCC 2003), and the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006). To the extent possible, the present report relies on published activity and emission factor data. Depending on the emission source category, activity data can include fuel consumption or deliveries, vehicle-miles traveled, raw material processed, etc. Emission factors are factors that relate quantities of emissions to an activity.

The IPCC methodologies provided in the Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines represent baseline methodologies for a variety of source categories, and many of these methodologies continue to be improved and refined as new research and data become available. This report uses the IPCC methodologies when applicable, and supplements them with other available methodologies and data where possible. Choices made regarding the methodologies and data sources used are provided in conjunction with the discussion of each source category in the main body of the report. Complete documentation is provided in the annexes on the detailed methodologies and data sources utilized in the calculation of each source category.

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Box 1-3: IPCC Reference Approach

The UNFCCC reporting guidelines require countries to complete a "top-down" reference approach for estimating CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion in addition to their "bottom-up" sectoral methodology. This estimation method uses alternative methodologies and different data sources than those contained in that section of the Energy chapter. The reference approach estimates fossil fuel consumption by adjusting national aggregate fuel production data for imports, exports, and stock changes rather than relying on end-user consumption surveys (see Annex 4 of this report). The reference approach assumes that once carbon-based fuels are brought into a national economy, they are either saved in some way (e.g., stored in products, kept in fuel stocks, or left unoxidized in ash) or combusted, and therefore the carbon in them is oxidized and released into the atmosphere. Accounting for actual consumption of fuels at the sectoral or sub-national level is not required.

[END BOX]

1.5. Key Categories

The IPCC's Good Practice Guidance (IPCC 2000) defines a key category as a "[source or sink category] that is prioritized within the national inventory system because its estimate has a significant influence on a country's total inventory of direct greenhouse gases in terms of the absolute level of emissions, the trend in emissions, or both."⁴³ By definition, key categories include those sources that have the greatest contribution to the absolute level of national emissions. In addition, when an entire time series of emission estimates is prepared, a thorough investigation of key categories must also account for the influence of trends and uncertainties of individual source and sink categories. This analysis culls out source and sink categories that diverge from the overall trend in national emissions. Finally, a qualitative evaluation of key categories is performed to capture any categories that were not identified in any of the quantitative analyses.

A Tier 1 approach, as defined in the IPCC's Good Practice Guidance (IPCC 2000), was implemented to identify the key categories for the United States. This analysis was performed twice; one analysis included sources and sinks from the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (LULUCF) sector, the other analysis did not include the LULUCF categories. Following the Tier 1 approach, a Tier 2 approach, as defined in the IPCC's Good Practice Guidance (IPCC 2000), was then implemented to identify any additional key categories not already identified in the Tier 1 assessment. This analysis, which includes each source categories' uncertainty assessments (or proxies) in its calculations, was also performed twice to include or exclude LULUCF categories.

In addition to conducting Tier 1 and 2 level and trend assessments, a qualitative assessment of the source categories, as described in the IPCC's Good Practice Guidance (IPCC 2000), was conducted to capture any key categories that were not identified by either quantitative method. One additional key category, international bunker fuels, was identified using this qualitative assessment. International bunker fuels are fuels consumed for aviation or marine international transport activities, and emissions from these fuels are reported separately from totals in accordance with IPCC guidelines. If these emissions were included in the totals, bunker fuels would qualify as a key category according to the Tier 1 approach. The amount of uncertainty associated with estimation of emissions from international bunker fuels also supports the qualification of this source category as key, because it would qualify bunker fuels as a key category according to the Tier 2 approach. Table 1-4 presents the key categories for the United States (including and excluding LULUCF categories) using emissions and uncertainty data in this report, and ranked according to their sector and global warming potential-weighted emissions in 2009. The table also indicates the criteria used in identifying these categories (i.e., level, trend, Tier 1, Tier 2, and/or qualitative assessments). Annex 1 of this report provides additional information regarding the key categories in the United States and the methodologies used to identify them.

⁴³ See Chapter 7 "Methodological Choice and Recalculation" in IPCC (2000). <<http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/public/gp/gpgaum.htm>>

Table 1-4: Key Categories for the United States (1990-2009)

IPCC Source Categories	Gas	Tier 1				Tier 2				Qual ^a	2009 Emissions (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)
		Level Without LULUCF	Trend Without LULUCF	Level With LULUCF	Trend With LULUCF	Level Without LULUCF	Trend Without LULUCF	Level With LULUCF	Trend With LULUCF		
Energy											
CO ₂ Emissions from Stationary Combustion - Coal	CO ₂	•		•	•	•		•	•		1,841.0
CO ₂ Emissions from Mobile Combustion: Road	CO ₂	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		1,475.6
CO ₂ Emissions from Stationary Combustion - Gas	CO ₂	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		1,164.6
CO ₂ Emissions from Stationary Combustion - Oil	CO ₂	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		483.3
CO ₂ Emissions from Mobile Combustion: Aviation	CO ₂	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		140.7
CO ₂ Emissions from Non-Energy Use of Fuels	CO ₂	•		•	•	•		•			123.4
CO ₂ Emissions from Mobile Combustion: Other	CO ₂	•	•	•	•						73.5
CO ₂ Emissions from Natural Gas Systems	CO ₂	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		32.2
CO ₂ Emissions from Mobile Combustion: Marine	CO ₂	•	•	•	•						30.0
Fugitive Emissions from Natural Gas Systems	CH ₄	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		221.2
Fugitive Emissions from Coal Mining	CH ₄	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		71.0
Fugitive Emissions from Petroleum Systems	CH ₄	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		30.9
Non-CO ₂ Emissions from Stationary Combustion	CH ₄						•		•		6.2
N ₂ O Emissions from Mobile Combustion: Road	N ₂ O	•	•	•	•		•		•		20.3
Non-CO ₂ Emissions from Stationary Combustion	N ₂ O					•		•			12.8
International Bunker Fuels ^b	Several									•	124.4
Industrial Processes											
CO ₂ Emissions from Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	CO ₂	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		41.9
CO ₂ Emissions from Cement Production	CO ₂		•	•	•						29.0
CO ₂ Emissions from Ammonia Production and Urea Consumption	CO ₂		•		•						11.8
CO ₂ Emissions from Aluminum Production	CO ₂										3.0
N ₂ O Emissions from Nitric Acid Production	N ₂ O				•		•				14.6
N ₂ O Emissions from Adipic Acid Production	N ₂ O		•		•		•		•		1.9
Emissions from Substitutes for Ozone Depleting Substances	HiGWP	•	•	•	•		•	•	•		120.0
SF ₆ Emissions from Electrical Transmission and Distribution	HiGWP		•		•		•		•		12.8
HFC-23 Emissions from HCFC-22 Production	HiGWP	•	•	•	•		•		•		5.4

IPCC Source Categories	Gas	Tier 1				Tier 2				Qual ^a	2009 Emissions (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)
		Level Without LULUCF	Trend Without LULUCF	Level With LULUCF	Trend With LULUCF	Level Without LULUCF	Trend Without LULUCF	Level With LULUCF	Trend With LULUCF		
PFC Emissions from Aluminum Production	HiGWP		•		•		•				1.6
SF ₆ Emissions from Magnesium Production and Processing	HiGWP		•		•						1.1
Agriculture											
CH ₄ Emissions from Enteric Fermentation	CH ₄	•		•		•		•			139.8
CH ₄ Emissions from Manure Management	CH ₄	•	•	•	•		•		•		49.5
CH ₄ Emissions from Rice Cultivation	CH ₄					•		•			7.3
Direct N ₂ O Emissions from Agricultural Soil Management	N ₂ O	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		160.2
Indirect N ₂ O Emissions from Applied Nitrogen	N ₂ O	•		•		•	•	•	•		44.4
Waste											
CH ₄ Emissions from Landfills	CH ₄	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		117.5
CH ₄ Emissions from Wastewater Treatment	CH ₄					•		•			24.5
Land Use, Land Use Change, and Forestry											
CO ₂ Emissions from Changes in Forest Carbon Stocks	CO ₂			•	•			•	•		(863.1)
CO ₂ Emissions from Urban Trees	CO ₂			•	•			•	•		(95.9)
CO ₂ Emissions from Cropland Remaining Cropland	CO ₂				•			•	•		(17.4)
CO ₂ Emissions from Landfilled Yard Trimmings and Food Scraps	CO ₂				•			•	•		(12.6)
CO ₂ Emissions from Grassland Remaining Grassland	CO ₂			•	•			•	•		(8.3)
CH ₄ Emissions from Forest Fires	CH ₄							•	•		7.8
N ₂ O Emissions from Forest Fires	N ₂ O								•		6.4
Subtotal Without LULUCF											6,512.7
Total Emissions Without LULUCF											6,608.2
Percent of Total Without LULUCF											99%
Subtotal With LULUCF											5,529.5
Total Emissions With LULUCF											5,618.2
Percent of Total With LULUCF											98%

^aQualitative criteria.

^bEmissions from this source not included in totals.

Note: Parentheses indicate negative values (or sequestration).

1.6. Quality Assurance and Quality Control (QA/QC)

As part of efforts to achieve its stated goals for inventory quality, transparency, and credibility, the United States has developed a quality assurance and quality control plan designed to check, document and improve the quality of its

inventory over time. QA/QC activities on the Inventory are undertaken within the framework of the U.S. QA/QC plan, Quality Assurance/Quality Control and Uncertainty Management Plan for the U.S. Greenhouse Gas Inventory: Procedures Manual for QA/QC and Uncertainty Analysis.

Key attributes of the QA/QC plan are summarized in Figure 1-1. These attributes include:

- specific detailed procedures and forms that serve to standardize the process of documenting and archiving information, as well as to guide the implementation of QA/QC and the analysis of the uncertainty of the inventory estimates;
- expert review as well as QC—for both the inventory estimates and the Inventory (which is the primary vehicle for disseminating the results of the inventory development process). In addition, the plan provides for public review of the Inventory;
- both Tier 1 (general) and Tier 2 (source-specific) quality controls and checks, as recommended by IPCC Good Practice Guidance;
- consideration of secondary data quality and source-specific quality checks (Tier 2 QC) in parallel and coordination with the uncertainty assessment; the development of protocols and templates provides for more structured communication and integration with the suppliers of secondary information;
- record-keeping provisions to track which procedures have been followed, and the results of the QA/QC and uncertainty analysis, and contains feedback mechanisms for corrective action based on the results of the investigations, thereby providing for continual data quality improvement and guided research efforts;
- implementation of QA/QC procedures throughout the whole inventory development process—from initial data collection, through preparation of the emission estimates, to publication of the Inventory;
- a schedule for multi-year implementation; and
- promotion of coordination and interaction within the EPA, across Federal agencies and departments, state government programs, and research institutions and consulting firms involved in supplying data or preparing estimates for the inventory. The QA/QC plan itself is intended to be revised and reflect new information that becomes available as the program develops, methods are improved, or additional supporting documents become necessary.

In addition, based on the national QA/QC plan for the Inventory, source-specific QA/QC plans have been developed for a number of sources. These plans follow the procedures outlined in the national QA/QC plan, tailoring the procedures to the specific text and spreadsheets of the individual sources. For each greenhouse gas emissions source or sink included in this Inventory, a minimum of a Tier 1 QA/QC analysis has been undertaken. Where QA/QC activities for a particular source go beyond the minimum Tier 1 level, further explanation is provided within the respective source category text.

The quality control activities described in the U.S. QA/QC plan occur throughout the inventory process; QA/QC is not separate from, but is an integral part of, preparing the inventory. Quality control—in the form of both good practices (such as documentation procedures) and checks on whether good practices and procedures are being followed—is applied at every stage of inventory development and document preparation. In addition, quality assurance occurs at two stages—an expert review and a public review. While both phases can significantly contribute to inventory quality, the public review phase is also essential for promoting the openness of the inventory development process and the transparency of the inventory data and methods.

The QA/QC plan guides the process of ensuring inventory quality by describing data and methodology checks, developing processes governing peer review and public comments, and developing guidance on conducting an analysis of the uncertainty surrounding the emission estimates. The QA/QC procedures also include feedback loops and provide for corrective actions that are designed to improve the inventory estimates over time.

Figure 1-1: U.S. QA/QC Plan Summary

1.7. Uncertainty Analysis of Emission Estimates

Uncertainty estimates are an essential element of a complete and transparent emissions inventory. Uncertainty information is not intended to dispute the validity of the inventory estimates, but to help prioritize efforts to improve the accuracy of future inventories and guide future decisions on methodological choice. While the U.S. Inventory calculates its emission estimates with the highest possible accuracy, uncertainties are associated to a varying degree with the development of emission estimates for any inventory. Some of the current estimates, such as those for CO₂ emissions from energy-related activities, are considered to have minimal uncertainty associated with them. For some other categories of emissions, however, a lack of data or an incomplete understanding of how emissions are generated increases the uncertainty surrounding the estimates presented. Despite these uncertainties, the UNFCCC reporting guidelines follow the recommendation in the 1996 IPCC Guidelines (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) and require that countries provide single point estimates for each gas and emission or removal source category. Within the discussion of each emission source, specific factors affecting the uncertainty associated with the estimates are discussed.

Additional research in the following areas could help reduce uncertainty in the U.S. Inventory:

- *Incorporating excluded emission sources.* Quantitative estimates for some of the sources and sinks of greenhouse gas emissions are not available at this time. In particular, emissions from some land-use activities and industrial processes are not included in the inventory either because data are incomplete or because methodologies do not exist for estimating emissions from these source categories. See Annex 5 of this report for a discussion of the sources of greenhouse gas emissions and sinks excluded from this report.
- *Improving the accuracy of emission factors.* Further research is needed in some cases to improve the accuracy of emission factors used to calculate emissions from a variety of sources. For example, the accuracy of current emission factors applied to CH₄ and N₂O emissions from stationary and mobile combustion is highly uncertain.
- *Collecting detailed activity data.* Although methodologies exist for estimating emissions for some sources, problems arise in obtaining activity data at a level of detail in which aggregate emission factors can be applied. For example, the ability to estimate emissions of SF₆ from electrical transmission and distribution is limited due to a lack of activity data regarding national SF₆ consumption or average equipment leak rates.

The overall uncertainty estimate for the U.S. greenhouse gas emissions inventory was developed using the IPCC Tier 2 uncertainty estimation methodology. Estimates of quantitative uncertainty for the overall greenhouse gas emissions inventory are shown below, in Table 1-5.

The IPCC provides good practice guidance on two approaches—Tier 1 and Tier 2—to estimating uncertainty for individual source categories. Tier 2 uncertainty analysis, employing the Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation technique, was applied wherever data and resources permitted; further explanation is provided within the respective source category text and in Annex 7. Consistent with the IPCC Good Practice Guidance (IPCC 2000), over a multi-year timeframe, the United States expects to continue to improve the uncertainty estimates presented in this report.

Table 1-5. Estimated Overall Inventory Quantitative Uncertainty (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Gas	2009 Emission Estimate ^a (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^b				Standard Mean ^c Deviation ^c (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	
		Lower		Upper		Lower	Upper
		Bound ^d	Bound ^d	Bound	Bound		
CO ₂	5,504.8	5,436.6	5,813.8	-1%	6%	5,622.5	97.5
CH ₄ ^e	686.3	623.9	805.4	-9%	17%	702.8	45.3
N ₂ O ^e	295.6	261.7	425.3	-11%	44%	334.2	42.1
PFC, HFC & SF ₆ ^e	143.3	134.5	153.4	-6%	7%	143.7	4.8
Total	6,630.0	6,584.2	7,033.6	-1%	6%	6,803.2	115.0
Net Emissions (Sources and Sinks)	5,614.9	5,512.3	6,055.1	-2%	8%	5,785.4	139.1

Notes:

^a Emission estimates reported in this table correspond to emissions from only those source categories for which quantitative uncertainty was performed this year. Thus the totals reported in this table exclude approximately 3.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. of emissions for

which quantitative uncertainty was not assessed. Hence, these emission estimates do not match the final total U.S. greenhouse gas emission estimates presented in this Inventory.

^b The lower and upper bounds for emission estimates correspond to a 95 percent confidence interval, with the lower bound corresponding to 2.5th percentile and the upper bound corresponding to 97.5th percentile.

^c Mean value indicates the arithmetic average of the simulated emission estimates; standard deviation indicates the extent of deviation of the simulated values from the mean.

^d The lower and upper bound emission estimates for the sub-source categories do not sum to total emissions because the low and high estimates for total emissions were calculated separately through simulations.

^e The overall uncertainty estimates did not take into account the uncertainty in the GWP values for CH₄, N₂O and high GWP gases used in the inventory emission calculations for 2009.

Emissions calculated for the U.S. Inventory reflect current best estimates; in some cases, however, estimates are based on approximate methodologies, assumptions, and incomplete data. As new information becomes available in the future, the United States will continue to improve and revise its emission estimates. See Annex 7 of this report for further details on the U.S. process for estimating uncertainty associated with the emission estimates and for a more detailed discussion of the limitations of the current analysis and plans for improvement. Annex 7 also includes details on the uncertainty analysis performed for selected source categories.

1.8. Completeness

This report, along with its accompanying CRF reporter, serves as a thorough assessment of the anthropogenic sources and sinks of greenhouse gas emissions for the United States for the time series 1990 through 2009. Although this report is intended to be comprehensive, certain sources have been identified yet excluded from the estimates presented for various reasons. Generally speaking, sources not accounted for in this inventory are excluded due to data limitations or a lack of thorough understanding of the emission process. The United States is continually working to improve upon the understanding of such sources and seeking to find the data required to estimate related emissions. As such improvements are implemented, new emission sources are quantified and included in the Inventory. For a complete list of sources not included, see Annex 5 of this report.

1.9. Organization of Report

In accordance with the Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997), and the 2006 UNFCCC Guidelines on Reporting and Review (UNFCCC 2006), this Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks is segregated into six sector-specific chapters, listed below in Table 1-6. In addition, chapters on Trends in Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Other information to be considered as part of the U.S. Inventory submission are included.

Table 1-6: IPCC Sector Descriptions

Chapter/IPCC Sector	Activities Included
Energy	Emissions of all greenhouse gases resulting from stationary and mobile energy activities including fuel combustion and fugitive fuel emissions.
Industrial Processes	By-product or fugitive emissions of greenhouse gases from industrial processes not directly related to energy activities such as fossil fuel combustion.
Solvent and Other Product Use	Emissions, of primarily NMVOCs, resulting from the use of solvents and N ₂ O from product uses.
Agriculture	Anthropogenic emissions from agricultural activities except fuel combustion, which is addressed under Energy.
Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry	Emissions and removals of CO ₂ , CH ₄ , and N ₂ O from forest management, other land-use activities, and land-use change.
Waste	Emissions from waste management activities.

Source: (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997)

Within each chapter, emissions are identified by the anthropogenic activity that is the source or sink of the greenhouse gas emissions being estimated (e.g., coal mining). Overall, the following organizational structure is consistently applied throughout this report:

Chapter/IPCC Sector: Overview of emission trends for each IPCC defined sector

Source category: Description of source pathway and emission trends.

Methodology: Description of analytical methods employed to produce emission estimates and identification of data references, primarily for activity data and emission factors.

Uncertainty: A discussion and quantification of the uncertainty in emission estimates and a discussion of time-series consistency.

QA/QC and Verification: A discussion on steps taken to QA/QC and verify the emission estimates, where beyond the overall U.S. QA/QC plan, and any key findings.

Recalculations: A discussion of any data or methodological changes that necessitate a recalculation of previous years' emission estimates, and the impact of the recalculation on the emission estimates, if applicable.

Planned Improvements: A discussion on any source-specific planned improvements, if applicable.

Special attention is given to CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion relative to other sources because of its share of emissions and its dominant influence on emission trends. For example, each energy consuming end-use sector (i.e., residential, commercial, industrial, and transportation), as well as the electricity generation sector, is described individually. Additional information for certain source categories and other topics is also provided in several Annexes listed in Table 1-7.

Table 1-7: List of Annexes

ANNEX 1	Key Category Analysis
ANNEX 2	Methodology and Data for Estimating CO ₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion
2.1.	Methodology for Estimating Emissions of CO ₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion
2.2.	Methodology for Estimating the Carbon Content of Fossil Fuels
2.3.	Methodology for Estimating Carbon Emitted from Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels
ANNEX 3	Methodological Descriptions for Additional Source or Sink Categories
3.1.	Methodology for Estimating Emissions of CH ₄ , N ₂ O, and Indirect Greenhouse Gases from Stationary Combustion
3.2.	Methodology for Estimating Emissions of CH ₄ , N ₂ O, and Indirect Greenhouse Gases from Mobile Combustion and Methodology for and Supplemental Information on Transportation-Related Greenhouse Gas Emissions
3.3.	Methodology for Estimating CH ₄ Emissions from Coal Mining
3.4.	Methodology for Estimating CH ₄ Emissions from Natural Gas Systems
3.5.	Methodology for Estimating CH ₄ and CO ₂ Emissions from Petroleum Systems
3.6.	Methodology for Estimating CO ₂ and N ₂ O Emissions from Incineration of Waste
3.7.	Methodology for Estimating Emissions from International Bunker Fuels used by the U.S. Military
3.8.	Methodology for Estimating HFC and PFC Emissions from Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances
3.9.	Methodology for Estimating CH ₄ Emissions from Enteric Fermentation
3.10.	Methodology for Estimating CH ₄ and N ₂ O Emissions from Manure Management
3.11.	Methodology for Estimating N ₂ O Emissions from Agricultural Soil Management
3.12.	Methodology for Estimating Net Carbon Stock Changes in Forest Lands Remaining Forest Lands
3.13.	Methodology for Estimating Net Changes in Carbon Stocks in Mineral and Organic Soils on Croplands and Grasslands
3.14.	Methodology for Estimating CH ₄ Emissions from Landfills
ANNEX 4	IPCC Reference Approach for Estimating CO ₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion
ANNEX 5	Assessment of the Sources and Sinks of Greenhouse Gas Emissions Not Included
ANNEX 6	Additional Information
6.1.	Global Warming Potential Values
6.2.	Ozone Depleting Substance Emissions
6.3.	Sulfur Dioxide Emissions
6.4.	Complete List of Source Categories
6.5.	Constants, Units, and Conversions
6.6.	Abbreviations

6.7. Chemical Formulas

ANNEX 7 Uncertainty

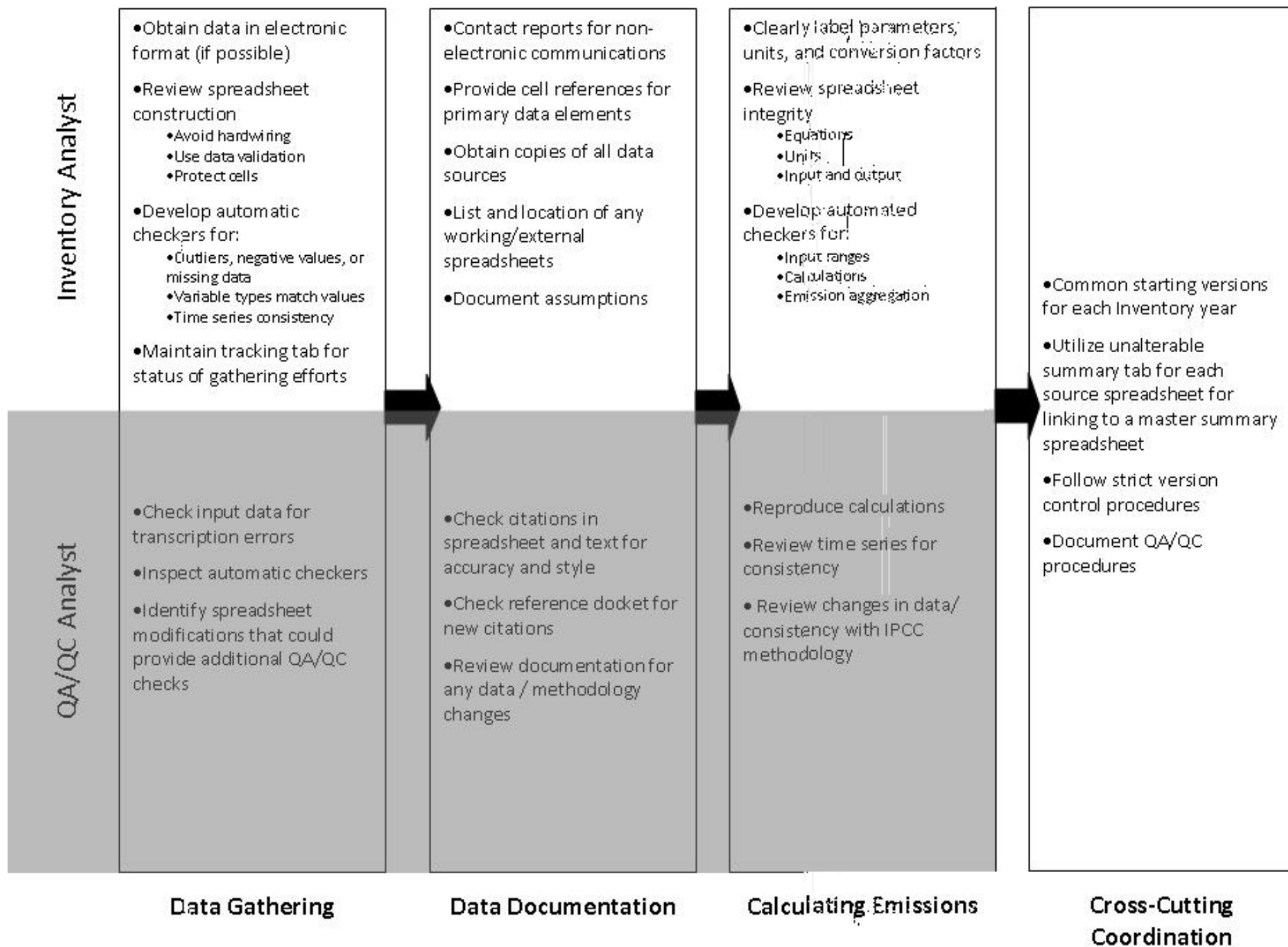
7.1. Overview

7.2. Methodology and Results

7.3. Planned Improvements

7.4. Additional Information on Uncertainty Analyses by Source

Figure 1: U.S. QA/QC Plan Summary



2. Trends in Greenhouse Gas Emissions

2.1. Recent Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks

In 2009, total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions were 6,633.2 teragrams of carbon dioxide equivalents (Tg CO₂ Eq.); net emissions were 5,618.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. reflecting the influence of sinks (net CO₂ flux from Land Use, Land Use Change, and Forestry).⁴⁴ While total U.S. emissions have increased by 7.3 percent from 1990 to 2009, emissions decreased from 2008 to 2009 by 6.1 percent (427.9 Tg CO₂ Eq.). The following factors were primary contributors to this decrease: (1) a decrease in economic output resulting in a decrease in energy consumption across all sectors; and (2) a decrease in the carbon intensity of fuels used to generate electricity due to fuel switching as the price of coal increased, and the price of natural gas decreased significantly.

Figure 2-1: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions by Gas

Figure 2-2: Annual Percent Change in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions

Figure 2-3: Cumulative Change in Annual U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Relative to 1990

As the largest contributor to U.S. greenhouse gas emissions, carbon dioxide (CO₂) from fossil fuel combustion has accounted for approximately 79 percent of global warming potential (GWP) weighted emissions since 1990, from 77 percent of total GWP-weighted emissions in 1990 to 79 percent in 2009. Emissions from this source category grew by 9.9 percent (470.6 Tg CO₂ Eq.) from 1990 to 2009 and were responsible for most of the increase in national emissions during this period. From 2008 to 2009, these emissions decreased by 6.4 percent (356.9 Tg CO₂ Eq.). Historically, changes in emissions from fossil fuel combustion have been the dominant factor affecting U.S. emission trends.

Changes in CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion are influenced by many long-term and short-term factors, including population and economic growth, energy price fluctuations, technological changes, and seasonal temperatures. On an annual basis, the overall consumption of fossil fuels in the United States fluctuates primarily in response to changes in general economic conditions, energy prices, weather, and the availability of non-fossil alternatives. For example, in a year with increased consumption of goods and services, low fuel prices, severe summer and winter weather conditions, nuclear plant closures, and lower precipitation feeding hydroelectric dams, there would likely be proportionally greater fossil fuel consumption than in a year with poor economic performance, high fuel prices, mild temperatures, and increased output from nuclear and hydroelectric plants.

In the longer-term, energy consumption patterns respond to changes that affect the scale of consumption (e.g., population, number of cars, and size of houses), the efficiency with which energy is used in equipment (e.g., cars, power plants, steel mills, and light bulbs) and behavioral choices (e.g., walking, bicycling, or telecommuting to work instead of driving).

Energy-related CO₂ emissions also depend on the type of fuel or energy consumed and its carbon (C) intensity. Producing a unit of heat or electricity using natural gas instead of coal, for example, can reduce the CO₂ emissions because of the lower C content of natural gas.

A brief discussion of the year to year variability in fuel combustion emissions is provided below, beginning with 2005.

From 2005 to 2006, emissions from fuel combustion decreased for the first time since 2000 to 2001. This decrease occurred across all sectors, with the exception of the industrial sector and the U.S. Territories sector, due to a

⁴⁴ Estimates are presented in units of teragrams of carbon dioxide equivalent (Tg CO₂ Eq.), which weight each gas by its global warming potential, or GWP, value. See section on global warming potentials in the Executive Summary.

number of factors. The decrease in emissions from electricity generation is a result of a smaller share of electricity generated by coal and a greater share generated by natural gas. Coal consumption for electricity generation decreased by 1.3 percent while natural gas consumption for electricity generation increased by 6.0 percent in 2006 and nuclear power generation increased by less than 1 percent. The decrease in consumption of transportation fuels is primarily a result of the restraint on fuel consumption caused by rising fuel prices, which directly resulted in a decrease of petroleum consumption within this sector of about 1.1 percent in 2006. The significant decrease in emissions from the residential sector is primarily a result of decreased electricity consumption due to increases in the price of electricity, and warmer winter weather conditions compared to 2005. A moderate increase in industrial sector emissions is the result of growth in industrial output and growth in the U.S. economy. Renewable fuels used to generate electricity increased in 2006, with the greatest growth occurring in generation from wind by 48 percent.

After experiencing a decrease from 2005 to 2006, emissions from fuel combustion grew from 2006 to 2007 at a rate somewhat higher than the average growth rate since 1990. There were a number of factors contributing to this increase. More energy-intensive weather conditions in both the winter and summer resulted in an increase in consumption of heating fuels, as well as an increase in the demand for electricity. This demand for electricity was met with an increase in coal consumption of 1.7 percent, and with an increase in natural gas consumption of 9.9 percent. This increase in fossil fuel consumption, combined with a 14.7 percent decrease in hydropower generation from 2006 to 2007, resulted in an increase in emissions in 2007. The increase in emissions from the residential and commercial sectors is a result of increased electricity consumption due to warmer summer conditions and cooler winter conditions compared to 2006. In addition to these more energy-intensive weather conditions, electricity prices remained relatively stable compared to 2006, and natural gas prices decreased slightly. Emissions from the industrial sector decreased compared to 2006 as a result of a decrease in industrial production and fossil fuels used for electricity generation. Despite an overall decrease in electricity generation from renewable energy in 2007 driven by decreases in hydropower generation, wind and solar generation increased significantly.

Emissions from fossil fuel combustion decreased from 2007 to 2008. Several factors contributed to this decrease in emissions. An increase in energy prices coupled with the economic downturn led to a decrease in energy demand and a resulting decrease in emissions from 2007 to 2008. In 2008, the price of coal, natural gas, and petroleum used to generate electricity, as well as the price of fuels used for transportation, increased significantly. As a result of this price increase, coal, natural gas, and petroleum consumption used for electricity generation decreased by 1.4 percent, 2.5 percent, and 28.8 percent, respectively. The increase in the cost of fuels to generate electricity translated into an increase in the price of electricity, leading to a decrease in electricity consumption across all sectors except the commercial sector. The increase in transportation fuel prices led to a decrease in vehicle miles traveled (VMT) and a 5.5 percent decrease in transportation fossil fuel combustion emissions from 2007 to 2008. Cooler weather conditions in the summer led to a decrease in cooling degree days by 8.7 percent and a decrease in electricity demand compared to 2007, whereas cooler winter conditions led to a 5.6 percent increase in heating degree days compared to 2007 and a resulting increase in demand for heating fuels. The increased emissions from winter heating energy demand was offset by a decrease in emissions from summer cooling related electricity demand. Lastly, renewable energy⁴⁵ consumption for electricity generation increased by 9.6 percent from 2007 to 2008, driven by a significant increase in solar and wind energy consumption (of 19.4 percent and 60.2 percent, respectively). This increase in renewable energy generation contributed to a decrease in the carbon intensity of electricity generation.

From 2008 to 2009, CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion emissions experienced a decrease of 6.4 percent, the greatest decrease of any year over the course of the twenty-year period. Various factors contributed to this decrease in emissions. The continued economic downturn resulted in a 2.6 percent decrease in GDP, and a decrease in energy consumption across all sectors. The economic downturn also impacted total industrial production and manufacturing output, which decreased by 9.3 and 10.9 percent, respectively. In 2009, the price of coal used to generate electricity increased, while the price of natural gas used to generate electricity decreased significantly. As a result, natural gas was used for a greater share of electricity generation in 2009 than 2008, and coal was used for a smaller share. The fuel switching from coal to natural gas and additional electricity generation from other energy sources in 2009, which included a 6.8 percent increase in hydropower generation from the previous year, resulted in a decrease in carbon intensity, and in turn, a decrease in emissions from electricity generation. From 2008 to 2009, industrial sector emissions decreased significantly as a result of a decrease in output from energy-intensive industries of 16.6

⁴⁵ Renewable energy, as defined in EIA's energy statistics, includes the following energy sources: hydroelectric power, geothermal energy, biofuels, solar energy, and wind energy.

percent in nonmetallic mineral and 31.6 percent in primary metal industries. The residential and commercial sectors only experienced minor decreases in emissions as summer and winter weather conditions were less energy-intensive from 2008 to 2009, and the price of electricity only increased slightly. Heating degree days decreased slightly and cooling degree days decreased by 3.8 percent from 2008 to 2009.

Overall, from 1990 to 2009, total emissions of CO₂ and CH₄ increased by 405.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (8.0 percent) and 11.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1.7 percent), respectively, while N₂O emissions decreased by 19.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. (6.2 percent). During the same period, aggregate weighted emissions of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ rose by 54.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (58.8 percent). Despite being emitted in smaller quantities relative to the other principal greenhouse gases, emissions of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ are significant because many of them have extremely high GWPs and, in the cases of PFCs and SF₆, long atmospheric lifetimes. Conversely, U.S. greenhouse gas emissions were partly offset by C sequestration in managed forests, trees in urban areas, agricultural soils, and landfilled yard trimmings. These were estimated to offset 15.3 percent of total emissions in 2009.

Table 2-1 summarizes emissions and sinks from all U.S. anthropogenic sources in weighted units of Tg CO₂ Eq., while unweighted gas emissions and sinks in gigagrams (Gg) are provided in Table 2-2.

Table 2-1: Recent Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO₂	5,099.7	5,975.0	6,113.8	6,021.1	6,120.0	5,921.4	5,505.2
Fossil Fuel Combustion	4,738.4	5,594.8	5,753.2	5,653.1	5,756.7	5,565.9	5,209.0
Electricity Generation	1,820.8	2,296.9	2,402.1	2,346.4	2,412.8	2,360.9	2,154.0
Transportation	1,485.9	1,809.5	1,896.6	1,878.1	1,894.0	1,789.9	1,719.7
Industrial	846.5	851.1	823.1	848.2	842.0	802.9	730.4
Residential	338.3	370.7	357.9	321.5	342.4	348.2	339.2
Commercial	219.0	230.8	223.5	208.6	219.4	224.2	224.0
U.S. Territories	27.9	35.9	50.0	50.3	46.1	39.8	41.7
Non-Energy Use of Fuels	118.6	144.9	143.4	145.6	137.2	141.0	123.4
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	99.5	85.9	65.9	68.8	71.0	66.0	41.9
Natural Gas Systems	37.6	29.9	29.9	30.8	31.1	32.8	32.2
Cement Production	33.3	40.4	45.2	45.8	44.5	40.5	29.0
Incineration of Waste	8.0	11.1	12.5	12.5	12.7	12.2	12.3
Ammonia Production and Urea Consumption	16.8	16.4	12.8	12.3	14.0	11.9	11.8
Lime Production	11.5	14.1	14.4	15.1	14.6	14.3	11.2
Cropland Remaining Cropland	7.1	7.5	7.9	7.9	8.2	8.7	7.8
Limestone and Dolomite Use	5.1	5.1	6.8	8.0	7.7	6.3	7.6
Soda Ash Production and Consumption	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.1	4.1	4.3
Aluminum Production	6.8	6.1	4.1	3.8	4.3	4.5	3.0
Petrochemical Production	3.3	4.5	4.2	3.8	3.9	3.4	2.7
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.7	1.9	1.8	1.8
Titanium Dioxide Production	1.2	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.5
Ferroalloy Production	2.2	1.9	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.5
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands	1.0	1.2	1.1	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1
Phosphoric Acid Production	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.0
Zinc Production	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.0
Lead Production	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5
Petroleum Systems	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Sink) ^a	(861.5)	(576.6)	(1,056.5)	(1,064.3)	(1,060.9)	(1,040.5)	(1,015.1)
Biomass—Wood ^b	215.2	218.1	206.9	203.8	203.3	198.4	183.8
International Bunker Fuels ^c	111.8	98.5	109.7	128.4	127.6	133.7	123.1

<i>Biomass—Ethanol^b</i>	4.2	9.4	23.0	31.0	38.9	54.8	61.2
CH₄	674.9	659.9	631.4	672.1	664.6	676.7	686.3
Natural Gas Systems	189.8	209.3	190.4	217.7	205.2	211.8	221.2
Enteric Fermentation	132.1	136.5	136.5	138.8	141.0	140.6	139.8
Landfills	147.4	111.7	112.5	111.7	111.3	115.9	117.5
Coal Mining	84.1	60.4	56.9	58.2	57.9	67.1	71.0
Manure Management	31.7	42.4	46.6	46.7	50.7	49.4	49.5
Petroleum Systems	35.4	31.5	29.4	29.4	30.0	30.2	30.9
Wastewater Treatment	23.5	25.2	24.3	24.5	24.4	24.5	24.5
Forest Land Remaining Forest							
Land	3.2	14.3	9.8	21.6	20.0	11.9	7.8
Rice Cultivation	7.1	7.5	6.8	5.9	6.2	7.2	7.3
Stationary Combustion	7.4	6.6	6.6	6.2	6.5	6.5	6.2
Abandoned Underground Coal							
Mines	6.0	7.4	5.5	5.5	5.6	5.9	5.5
Mobile Combustion	4.7	3.4	2.5	2.3	2.2	2.0	2.0
Composting	0.3	1.3	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7
Petrochemical Production	0.9	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.4
Field Burning of Agriculture Residues	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2
Ferroalloy Production	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Incineration of Waste	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>International Bunker Fuels^c</i>	<i>0.2</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>0.2</i>	<i>0.2</i>	<i>0.2</i>	<i>0.1</i>
N₂O	315.2	341.0	322.9	326.4	325.1	310.8	295.6
Agricultural Soil Management	197.8	206.8	211.3	208.9	209.4	210.7	204.6
Mobile Combustion	43.9	53.2	36.9	33.6	30.3	26.1	23.9
Manure Management	14.5	17.1	17.3	18.0	18.1	17.9	17.9
Nitric Acid Production	17.7	19.4	16.5	16.2	19.2	16.4	14.6
Stationary Combustion	12.8	14.6	14.7	14.4	14.6	14.2	12.8
Forest Land Remaining Forest							
Land	2.7	12.1	8.4	18.0	16.7	10.1	6.7
Wastewater Treatment	3.7	4.5	4.8	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.0
N ₂ O from Product Uses	4.4	4.9	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4
Adipic Acid Production	15.8	5.5	5.0	4.3	3.7	2.0	1.9
Composting	0.4	1.4	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.8
Settlements Remaining							
Settlements	1.0	1.1	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.5
Incineration of Waste	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>International Bunker Fuels^c</i>	<i>1.1</i>	<i>0.9</i>	<i>1.0</i>	<i>1.2</i>	<i>1.2</i>	<i>1.2</i>	<i>1.1</i>
HFCs	36.9	103.2	120.2	123.5	129.5	129.4	125.7
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances ^d	0.3	74.3	104.2	109.4	112.3	115.5	120.0
HCFC-22 Production	36.4	28.6	15.8	13.8	17.0	13.6	5.4
Semiconductor Manufacture	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
PFCs	20.8	13.5	6.2	6.0	7.5	6.6	5.6
Semiconductor Manufacture	2.2	4.9	3.2	3.5	3.7	4.0	4.0
Aluminum Production	18.5	8.6	3.0	2.5	3.8	2.7	1.6
SF₆	34.4	20.1	19.0	17.9	16.7	16.1	14.8

Electrical Transmission and Distribution	28.4	16.0	15.1	14.1	13.2	13.3	12.8
Magnesium Production and Processing	5.4	3.0	2.9	2.9	2.6	1.9	1.1
Semiconductor Manufacture	0.5	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.9	1.0
Total	6,181.8	7,112.7	7,213.5	7,166.9	7,263.4	7,061.1	6,633.2
Net Emissions (Sources and Sinks)	5,320.3	6,536.1	6,157.1	6,102.6	6,202.5	6,020.7	5,618.2

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

^a The net CO₂ flux total includes both emissions and sequestration, and constitutes a sink in the United States. Sinks are only included in net emissions total. Parentheses indicate negative values or sequestration.

^b Emissions from Wood Biomass and Ethanol Consumption are not included specifically in summing energy sector totals. Net carbon fluxes from changes in biogenic carbon reservoirs are accounted for in the estimates for Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry.

^c Emissions from International Bunker Fuels are not included in totals.

^d Small amounts of PFC emissions also result from this source.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 2-2: Recent Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks (Gg)

Gas/Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO₂	5,099,719	5,974,991	6,113,751	6,021,089	6,120,009	5,921,443	5,505,204
Fossil Fuel Combustion	4,738,422	5,594,848	5,753,200	5,653,116	5,756,746	5,565,925	5,208,981
Electricity Generation	1,820,818	2,296,894	2,402,142	2,346,406	2,412,827	2,360,919	2,154,025
Transportation	1,485,937	1,809,514	1,896,606	1,878,125	1,893,994	1,789,918	1,719,685
Industrial	846,475	851,094	823,069	848,206	842,048	802,856	730,422
Residential	338,347	370,666	357,903	321,513	342,397	348,221	339,203
Commercial	218,964	230,828	223,512	208,582	219,356	224,167	223,993
U.S. Territories	27,882	35,853	49,968	50,284	46,123	39,845	41,652
Non-Energy Use of Fuels	118,630	144,933	143,392	145,574	137,233	140,952	123,356
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	99,528	85,935	65,925	68,772	71,045	66,015	41,871
Natural Gas Systems	37,574	29,877	29,902	30,755	31,050	32,828	32,171
Cement Production	33,278	40,405	45,197	45,792	44,538	40,531	29,018
Incineration of Waste	7,989	11,112	12,450	12,531	12,700	12,169	12,300
Ammonia Production and Urea Consumption	16,831	16,402	12,849	12,300	14,038	11,949	11,797
Lime Production	11,533	14,088	14,379	15,100	14,595	14,330	11,223
Cropland Remaining Cropland	7,084	7,541	7,854	7,875	8,202	8,654	7,832
Limestone and Dolomite Use	5,127	5,056	6,768	8,035	7,702	6,276	7,649
Soda Ash Production and Consumption	4,141	4,181	4,228	4,162	4,140	4,111	4,265
Aluminum Production	6,831	6,086	4,142	3,801	4,251	4,477	3,009
Petrochemical Production	3,311	4,479	4,181	3,837	3,931	3,449	2,735
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	1,416	1,421	1,321	1,709	1,867	1,780	1,763
Titanium Dioxide Production	1,195	1,752	1,755	1,836	1,930	1,809	1,541
Ferroalloy Production	2,152	1,893	1,392	1,505	1,552	1,599	1,469
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands	1,033	1,227	1,079	879	1,012	992	1,090
Phosphoric Acid Production	1,529	1,382	1,386	1,167	1,166	1,187	1,035
Zinc Production	667	997	1,088	1,088	1,081	1,230	966

Lead Production	516	594	553	560	562	551	525
Petroleum Systems	555	534	490	488	474	453	463
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	375	248	219	207	196	175	145
<i>Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Sink)^a</i>	(861,535)	(576,588)	(1,056,459)	(1,064,330)	(1,060,882)	(1,040,461)	(1,015,074)
<i>Biomass - Wood^b</i>	215,186	218,088	206,865	203,846	203,316	198,361	183,777
<i>International Bunker Fuels^c</i>	111,828	98,482	109,750	128,384	127,618	133,704	123,127
<i>Biomass - Ethanol^b</i>	4,229	9,352	22,956	31,002	38,946	54,770	61,231
CH₄	32,136	31,423	30,069	32,004	31,647	32,225	32,680
Natural Gas Systems	9,038	9,968	9,069	10,364	9,771	10,087	10,535
Enteric Fermentation	6,290	6,502	6,500	6,611	6,715	6,696	6,655
Landfills	7,018	5,317	5,358	5,321	5,299	5,520	5,593
Coal Mining	4,003	2,877	2,710	2,774	2,756	3,196	3,382
Manure Management	1,511	2,019	2,217	2,226	2,416	2,353	2,356
Petroleum Systems	1,685	1,501	1,398	1,398	1,427	1,439	1,473
Wastewater Treatment	1,118	1,199	1,159	1,167	1,163	1,168	1,167
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land	152	682	467	1,027	953	569	372
Rice Cultivation	339	357	326	282	295	343	349
Stationary Combustion	354	315	312	293	308	310	293
Abandoned Underground Coal Mines	288	350	264	261	267	279	262
Mobile Combustion	223	160	119	112	105	97	93
Composting	15	60	75	75	79	80	79
Petrochemical Production	41	59	51	48	48	43	40
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	46	44	34	35	33	31	17
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	13	12	9	11	11	13	12
Ferroalloy Production	1	1	+	+	+	+	+
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	1	1	+	+	+	+	+
Incineration of Waste	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>International Bunker Fuels^c</i>	8	6	7	8	8	8	7
N₂O	1,017	1,100	1,042	1,053	1,049	1,002	954
Agricultural Soil Management	638	667	682	674	675	680	660
Mobile Combustion	142	172	119	108	98	84	77
Manure Management	47	55	56	58	58	58	58
Nitric Acid Production	57	63	53	52	62	53	47
Stationary Combustion	41	47	47	47	47	46	41
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land	9	39	27	58	54	33	22
Wastewater Treatment	12	14	15	16	16	16	16
N ₂ O from Product Uses	14	16	14	14	14	14	14
Adipic Acid Production	51	18	16	14	12	7	6
Composting	1	4	6	6	6	6	6
Settlements Remaining Settlements	3	4	5	5	5	5	5

Incineration of Waste	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
Field Burning of							
Agricultural Residues	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Wetlands Remaining							
Wetlands	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>International Bunker</i>							
<i>Fuels^c</i>	3	3	3	4	4	4	4
HFCs	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
Substitution of Ozone							
Depleting Substances ^d	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
HCFC-22 Production	3	2	1	1	1	1	+
Semiconductor							
Manufacture	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
PFCs	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
Semiconductor							
Manufacture	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
Aluminum Production	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
SF₆	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Electrical Transmission							
and Distribution	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Magnesium Production							
and Processing	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Semiconductor							
Manufacture	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg.

M Mixture of multiple gases

^a The net CO₂ flux total includes both emissions and sequestration, and constitutes a sink in the United States. Sinks are only included in net emissions total. Parentheses indicate negative values or sequestration.

^b Emissions from Wood Biomass and Ethanol Consumption are not included specifically in summing energy sector totals. Net carbon fluxes from changes in biogenic carbon reservoirs are accounted for in the estimates for Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry

^c Emissions from International Bunker Fuels are not included in totals.

^d Small amounts of PFC emissions also result from this source.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Emissions of all gases can be summed from each source category from Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) guidance. Over the twenty-year period of 1990 to 2009, total emissions in the Energy and Agriculture sectors grew by 463.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (8.8 percent) and 35.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (9.3 percent), respectively. Emissions decreased in the Industrial Processes, Waste, and Solvent and Other Product Use sectors by 32.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (10.4 percent), 24.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (14.1 percent) and less than 0.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (less than 0.4 percent), respectively. Over the same period, estimates of net C sequestration in the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry sector increased by 153.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (17.8 percent).

Figure 2-4: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks by Chapter/IPCC Sector

Table 2-3: Recent Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks by Chapter/IPCC Sector (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Chapter/IPCC Sector	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Energy	5,287.8	6,168.0	6,282.8	6,210.2	6,290.7	6,116.6	5,751.1
Industrial Processes	315.8	348.8	334.1	339.4	350.9	331.7	282.9
Solvent and Other Product Use	4.4	4.9	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4
Agriculture	383.6	410.6	418.8	418.8	425.8	426.3	419.3
Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Emissions)	15.0	36.3	28.6	49.8	47.5	33.2	25.0
Waste	175.2	143.9	144.9	144.4	144.1	149.0	150.5

Total Emissions	6,181.8	7,112.7	7,213.5	7,166.9	7,263.4	7,061.1	6,633.2
Net CO ₂ Flux from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Sinks)*	(861.5)	(576.6)	(1056.5)	(1064.3)	(1060.9)	(1040.5)	(1015.1)
Net Emissions (Sources and Sinks)	5,320.3	6,536.1	6,157.1	6,102.6	6,202.5	6,020.7	5,618.2

*The net CO₂ flux total includes both emissions and sequestration, and constitutes a sink in the United States. Sinks are only included in net emissions total. Please refer to Table 2-9 for a breakout by source.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Note: Parentheses indicate negative values or sequestration.

Energy

Energy-related activities, primarily fossil fuel combustion, accounted for the vast majority of U.S. CO₂ emissions for the period of 1990 through 2009. In 2009, approximately 83 percent of the energy consumed in the United States (on a Btu basis) was produced through the combustion of fossil fuels. The remaining 17 percent came from other energy sources such as hydropower, biomass, nuclear, wind, and solar energy (see Figure 2-5 and Figure 2-6). A discussion of specific trends related to CO₂ as well as other greenhouse gas emissions from energy consumption is presented in the Energy chapter. Energy-related activities are also responsible for CH₄ and N₂O emissions (49 percent and 13 percent of total U.S. emissions of each gas, respectively). Table 2-4 presents greenhouse gas emissions from the Energy chapter, by source and gas.

Figure 2-5: 2009 Energy Chapter Greenhouse Gas Sources

Figure 2-6: 2009 U.S. Fossil Carbon Flows (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Table 2-4: Emissions from Energy (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO₂	4,903.2	5,781.3	5,939.4	5,842.5	5,938.2	5,752.3	5,377.3
Fossil Fuel Combustion	4,738.4	5,594.8	5,753.2	5,653.1	5,756.7	5,565.9	5,209.0
Electricity Generation	1,820.8	2,296.9	2,402.1	2,346.4	2,412.8	2,360.9	2,154.0
Transportation	1,485.9	1,809.5	1,896.6	1,878.1	1,894.0	1,789.9	1,719.7
Industrial	846.5	851.1	823.1	848.2	842.0	802.9	730.4
Residential	338.3	370.7	357.9	321.5	342.4	348.2	339.2
Commercial	219.0	230.8	223.5	208.6	219.4	224.2	224.0
U.S. Territories	27.9	35.9	50.0	50.3	46.1	39.8	41.7
Non-Energy Use of Fuels	118.6	144.9	143.4	145.6	137.2	141.0	123.4
Natural Gas Systems	37.6	29.9	29.9	30.8	31.1	32.8	32.2
Incineration of Waste	8.0	11.1	12.5	12.5	12.7	12.2	12.3
Petroleum Systems	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Biomass - Wood ^d	215.2	218.1	206.9	203.8	203.3	198.4	183.8
International Bunker Fuels ^b	111.8	98.5	109.7	128.4	127.6	133.7	123.1
Biomass - Ethanol ^a	4.2	9.4	23.0	31.0	38.9	54.8	61.2
CH₄	327.4	318.6	291.3	319.2	307.3	323.6	336.8
Natural Gas Systems	189.8	209.3	190.4	217.7	205.2	211.8	221.2
Coal Mining	84.1	60.4	56.9	58.2	57.9	67.1	71.0
Petroleum Systems	35.4	31.5	29.4	29.4	30.0	30.2	30.9
Stationary Combustion	7.4	6.6	6.6	6.2	6.5	6.5	6.2
Abandoned Underground							
Coal Mines	6.0	7.4	5.5	5.5	5.6	5.9	5.5
Mobile Combustion	4.7	3.4	2.5	2.3	2.2	2.0	2.0
Incineration of Waste	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

<i>International Bunker Fuels^b</i>	<i>0.2</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>0.2</i>	<i>0.2</i>	<i>0.2</i>	<i>0.1</i>
N₂O	57.2	68.1	52.1	48.5	45.2	40.7	37.0
Mobile Combustion	43.9	53.2	36.9	33.6	30.3	26.1	23.9
Stationary Combustion	12.8	14.6	14.7	14.4	14.6	14.2	12.8
Incineration of Waste	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
<i>International Bunker Fuels^b</i>	<i>1.1</i>	<i>0.9</i>	<i>1.0</i>	<i>1.2</i>	<i>1.2</i>	<i>1.2</i>	<i>1.1</i>
Total	5,287.8	6,168.0	6,282.8	6,210.2	6,290.7	6,116.6	5,751.1

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

^a Emissions from Wood Biomass and Ethanol Consumption are not included specifically in summing energy sector totals. Net carbon fluxes from changes in biogenic carbon reservoirs are accounted for in the estimates for Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry

^b Emissions from International Bunker Fuels are not included in totals.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Carbon dioxide emissions from fossil fuel combustion are presented in Table 2-5 based on the underlying U.S. energy consumer data collected by EIA. Estimates of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion are calculated from these EIA “end-use sectors” based on total consumption and appropriate fuel properties (any additional analysis and refinement of the EIA data is further explained in the Energy chapter of this report). EIA’s fuel consumption data for the electric power sector comprises electricity-only and combined-heat-and-power (CHP) plants within the NAICS 22 category whose primary business is to sell electricity, or electricity and heat, to the public (nonutility power producers can be included in this sector as long as they meet the electric power sector definition). EIA statistics for the industrial sector include fossil fuel consumption that occurs in the fields of manufacturing, agriculture, mining, and construction. EIA’s fuel consumption data for the transportation sector consists of all vehicles whose primary purpose is transporting people and/or goods from one physical location to another. EIA’s fuel consumption data for the industrial sector consists of all facilities and equipment used for producing, processing, or assembling goods (EIA includes generators that produce electricity and/or useful thermal output primarily to support on-site industrial activities in this sector). EIA’s fuel consumption data for the residential sector consists of living quarters for private households. EIA’s fuel consumption data for the commercial sector consists of service-providing facilities and equipment from private and public organizations and businesses (EIA includes generators that produce electricity and/or useful thermal output primarily to support the activities at commercial establishments in this sector). Table 2-5, Figure 2-7, and Figure 2-8 summarize CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion by end-use sector.

Table 2-5: CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by End-Use Sector (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

End-Use Sector	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Transportation	1,489.0	1,813.0	1,901.3	1,882.6	1,899.0	1,794.6	1,724.1
Combustion	1,485.9	1,809.5	1,896.6	1,878.1	1,894.0	1,789.9	1,719.7
Electricity	3.0	3.4	4.7	4.5	5.0	4.7	4.4
Industrial	1,533.2	1,640.8	1,560.0	1,560.2	1,572.0	1,517.7	1,333.7
Combustion	846.5	851.1	823.1	848.2	842.0	802.9	730.4
Electricity	686.7	789.8	737.0	712.0	730.0	714.8	603.3
Residential	931.4	1,133.1	1,214.7	1,152.4	1,198.5	1,182.2	1,123.8
Combustion	338.3	370.7	357.9	321.5	342.4	348.2	339.2
Electricity	593.0	762.4	856.7	830.8	856.1	834.0	784.6
Commercial	757.0	972.1	1,027.2	1,007.6	1,041.1	1,031.6	985.7
Combustion	219.0	230.8	223.5	208.6	219.4	224.2	224.0
Electricity	538.0	741.3	803.7	799.0	821.7	807.4	761.7
U.S. Territories	27.9	35.9	50.0	50.3	46.1	39.8	41.7
Total	4,738.4	5,594.8	5,753.2	5,653.1	5,756.7	5,565.9	5,209.0
Electricity Generation	1,820.8	2,296.9	2,402.1	2,346.4	2,412.8	2,360.9	2,154.0

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Combustion-related emissions from electricity generation are allocated based on aggregate national electricity consumption by each end-use sector.

Figure 2-7: 2009 CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by Sector and Fuel Type

Figure 2-8: 2009 End-Use Sector Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion

The main driver of emissions in the Energy sector is CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion. The transportation end-use sector accounted for 1,724.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009 or approximately 33 percent of total CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion, the largest share of any end-use sector.⁴⁶ The industrial end-use sector accounted for 26 percent of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion. The residential and commercial end-use sectors accounted for an average 22 and 19 percent, respectively, of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion. Both end-use sectors were heavily reliant on electricity for meeting energy needs, with electricity consumption for lighting, heating, air conditioning, and operating appliances contributing 70 and 77 percent of emissions from the residential and commercial end-use sectors, respectively. Significant trends in emissions from energy source categories over the twenty-year period from 1990 through 2009 included the following:

- Total CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion increased from 4,738.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. to 5,209.0 Tg CO₂ Eq.—a 9.9 percent total increase over the twenty-year period. From 2008 to 2009, these emissions decreased by 356.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (6.4 percent), the largest decrease of any year over the twenty-year period.
- CO₂ emissions from non-energy use of fossil fuels increased 4.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (4.0 percent) from 1990 through 2009. Emissions from non-energy uses of fossil fuels were 123.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009, which constituted 2.2 percent of total national CO₂ emissions.
- CO₂ emissions from incineration of waste (12.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009) increased by 4.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (54 percent) from 1990 through 2009, as the volume of plastics and other fossil carbon-containing materials in municipal solid waste grew.
- CH₄ emissions from coal mining were 71.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009, a decline in emissions of 13.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. (15.5 percent) from 1990. This occurred as a result of the mining of less gassy coal from underground mines and the increased use of CH₄ collected from degasification systems.
- CH₄ emissions from natural gas systems were 221.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009; emissions have increased by 31.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (16.6 percent) since 1990.
- In 2009, N₂O emissions from mobile combustion were 23.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (approximately 8.1 percent of U.S. N₂O emissions). From 1990 to 2009, N₂O emissions from mobile combustion decreased by 45.6 percent. However, from 1990 to 1998 emissions increased by 26 percent, due to control technologies that reduced NO_x emissions while increasing N₂O emissions. Since 1998, newer control technologies have led to a steady decline in N₂O from this source.

Industrial Processes

Greenhouse gas emissions are produced as the by-products of many non-energy-related industrial activities. For example, industrial processes can chemically transform raw materials, which often release waste gases such as CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O. These processes include iron and steel production and metallurgical coke production, cement production, ammonia production and urea consumption, lime production, limestone and dolomite use (e.g., flux stone, flue gas desulfurization, and glass manufacturing), soda ash production and consumption, titanium dioxide production, phosphoric acid production, ferroalloy production, CO₂ consumption, silicon carbide production and consumption, aluminum production, petrochemical production, nitric acid production, adipic acid production, lead production, and zinc production (see Figure 2-9). Industrial processes also release HFCs, PFCs and SF₆. In addition to their use as ODS substitutes, HFCs, PFCs, SF₆, and other fluorinated compounds are employed and emitted by a number of other industrial sources in the United States. These industries include aluminum production, HCFC-22 production, semiconductor manufacture, electric power transmission and distribution, and magnesium metal production and processing. Table 2-6 presents greenhouse gas emissions from industrial processes by source category.

⁴⁶ Note that electricity generation is the largest emitter of CO₂ when electricity is not distributed among end-use sectors.

Figure 2-9: 2009 Industrial Processes Chapter Greenhouse Gas Sources

Table 2-6: Emissions from Industrial Processes (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO₂	188.4	184.9	165.4	169.9	172.6	159.5	119.0
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	99.5	85.9	65.9	68.8	71.0	66.0	41.9
<i>Iron and Steel Production</i>	<i>97.1</i>	<i>83.7</i>	<i>63.9</i>	<i>66.9</i>	<i>69.0</i>	<i>63.7</i>	<i>40.9</i>
<i>Metallurgical Coke Production</i>	<i>2.5</i>	<i>2.2</i>	<i>2.0</i>	<i>1.9</i>	<i>2.1</i>	<i>2.3</i>	<i>1.0</i>
Cement Production	33.3	40.4	45.2	45.8	44.5	40.5	29.0
Ammonia Production & Urea Consumption	16.8	16.4	12.8	12.3	14.0	11.9	11.8
Lime Production	11.5	14.1	14.4	15.1	14.6	14.3	11.2
Limestone and Dolomite Use	5.1	5.1	6.8	8.0	7.7	6.3	7.6
Soda Ash Production and Consumption	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.1	4.1	4.3
Aluminum Production	6.8	6.1	4.1	3.8	4.3	4.5	3.0
Petrochemical Production	3.3	4.5	4.2	3.8	3.9	3.4	2.7
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.7	1.9	1.8	1.8
Titanium Dioxide Production	1.2	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.5
Ferroalloy Production	2.2	1.9	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.5
Phosphoric Acid Production	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.0
Zinc Production	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.0
Lead Production	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
CH₄	1.9	2.2	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.2
Petrochemical Production	0.9	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.4
<i>Iron and Steel Production</i>	<i>1.0</i>	<i>0.9</i>	<i>0.7</i>	<i>0.7</i>	<i>0.7</i>	<i>0.6</i>	<i>0.4</i>
<i>Metallurgical Coke Production</i>	<i>+</i>	<i>+</i>	<i>+</i>	<i>+</i>	<i>+</i>	<i>+</i>	<i>+</i>
Ferroalloy Production	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N₂O	33.5	24.9	21.5	20.5	22.9	18.5	16.5
Nitric Acid Production	17.7	19.4	16.5	16.2	19.2	16.4	14.6
Adipic Acid Production	15.8	5.5	5.0	4.3	3.7	2.0	1.9
HFCs	36.9	103.2	120.2	123.4	129.5	129.4	125.7
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances ^a	0.3	74.3	104.2	109.4	112.3	115.5	120.0
HCFC-22 Production	36.4	28.6	15.8	13.8	17.0	13.6	5.4
Semiconductor Manufacture	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
PFCs	20.8	13.5	6.2	6.0	7.5	6.6	5.6
Semiconductor Manufacture	2.2	4.9	3.2	3.5	3.7	4.0	4.0
Aluminum Production	18.5	8.6	3.0	2.5	3.8	2.7	1.6
SF₆	34.4	20.1	19.0	17.9	16.7	16.1	14.8
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	28.4	16.0	15.1	14.1	13.2	13.3	12.8
Magnesium Production and Processing	5.4	3.0	2.9	2.9	2.6	1.9	1.1
Semiconductor Manufacture	0.5	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.9	1.0
Total	315.8	348.8	334.1	339.4	350.9	331.7	282.9

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.^a Small amounts of PFC emissions also result from this source.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Overall, emissions from industrial processes decreased by 10.4 percent from 1990 to 2009 due to decreases in emissions from several industrial processes, such as iron and steel production and metallurgical coke production, HCFC-22 production, aluminum production, adipic acid production, and electrical transmission and distribution. Significant trends in emissions from industrial processes source categories over the twenty-year period from 1990 through 2009 included the following:

- Combined CO₂ and CH₄ emissions from iron and steel production and metallurgical coke production decreased by 36.6 percent to 42.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. from 2008 to 2009, and have declined overall by 58.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (58.0 percent) from 1990 through 2009, due to restructuring of the industry, technological improvements, and increased scrap utilization.
- CO₂ emissions from ammonia production and urea consumption (11.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009) have decreased by 5.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. (29.9 percent) since 1990, due to a decrease in domestic ammonia production. This decrease in ammonia production is primarily attributed to market fluctuations.
- N₂O emissions from adipic acid production were 1.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009, and have decreased significantly in recent years from the widespread installation of pollution control measures. Emissions from adipic acid production have decreased by 87.7 percent since 1990 and by 89.0 percent since a peak in 1995.
- HFC emissions from ODS substitutes have been increasing from small amounts in 1990 to 120.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009. This increase results from efforts to phase out CFCs and other ODSs in the United States. In the short term, this trend is expected to continue, and will likely accelerate over the next decade as HCFCs—which are interim substitutes in many applications—are phased out under the provisions of the Copenhagen Amendments to the Montreal Protocol.
- PFC emissions from aluminum production decreased by about 91.5 percent (17.0 Tg CO₂ Eq.) from 1990 to 2009, due to both industry emission reduction efforts and lower domestic aluminum production.

Solvent and Other Product Use

Greenhouse gas emissions are produced as a by-product of various solvent and other product uses. In the United States, N₂O Emissions from Product Uses, the only source of greenhouse gas emissions from this sector, accounted for 4.4 Tg CO₂ Eq., or less than 0.1 percent of total U.S. emissions in 2009 (see Table 2-7).

Table 2-7: N₂O Emissions from Solvent and Other Product Use (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
N₂O	4.4	4.9	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4
N ₂ O from Product Uses	4.4	4.9	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4
Total	4.4	4.9	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4

In 2009, N₂O emissions from product uses constituted 1.5 percent of U.S. N₂O emissions. From 1990 to 2009, emissions from this source category decreased by just under 0.4 percent, though slight increases occurred in intermediate years.

Agriculture

Agricultural activities contribute directly to emissions of greenhouse gases through a variety of processes, including the following source categories: enteric fermentation in domestic livestock, livestock manure management, rice cultivation, agricultural soil management, and field burning of agricultural residues.

In 2009, agricultural activities were responsible for emissions of 419.3 Tg CO₂ Eq., or 6.3 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions. CH₄ and N₂O were the primary greenhouse gases emitted by agricultural activities. CH₄ emissions from enteric fermentation and manure management represented about 20.4 percent and 7.2 percent of total CH₄ emissions from anthropogenic activities, respectively, in 2009. Agricultural soil management activities, such as fertilizer application and other cropping practices, were the largest source of U.S. N₂O emissions in 2009, accounting for 69.2 percent.

Figure 2-10: 2009 Agriculture Chapter Greenhouse Gas Sources

Table 2-8: Emissions from Agriculture (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CH₄	171.2	186.7	190.1	191.7	198.2	197.5	196.8
Enteric Fermentation	132.1	136.5	136.5	138.8	141.0	140.6	139.8
Manure Management	31.7	42.4	46.6	46.7	50.7	49.4	49.5
Rice Cultivation	7.1	7.5	6.8	5.9	6.2	7.2	7.3
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2
N₂O	212.4	224.0	228.7	227.1	227.6	228.8	222.5
Agricultural Soil Management	197.8	206.8	211.3	208.9	209.4	210.7	204.6
Manure Management	14.5	17.1	17.3	18.0	18.1	17.9	17.9
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	383.6	410.6	418.8	418.8	425.8	426.3	419.3

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Some significant trends in U.S. emissions from Agriculture include the following:

- Agricultural soils produced approximately 69 percent of N₂O emissions in the United States in 2009. Estimated emissions from this source in 2009 were 204.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. Annual N₂O emissions from agricultural soils fluctuated between 1990 and 2009, although overall emissions were 3.4 percent higher in 2009 than in 1990. Nitrous oxide emissions from this source have not shown any significant long-term trend, as their estimation is highly sensitive to the amount of N applied to soils, which has not changed significantly over the time-period, and to weather patterns and crop type.
- Enteric fermentation was the largest source of CH₄ emissions in 2009, at 139.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. Generally, emissions decreased from 1996 to 2003, though with a slight increase in 2002. This trend was mainly due to decreasing populations of both beef and dairy cattle and increased digestibility of feed for feedlot cattle. Emissions increased from 2004 through 2007, as both dairy and beef populations increased and the literature for dairy cow diets indicated a trend toward a decrease in feed digestibility for those years. Emissions decreased again in 2008 and 2009 as beef cattle populations decreased again. During the timeframe of this analysis, populations of sheep have decreased 49 percent since 1990 while horse populations have increased over 87 percent, mostly since 1999. Goat and swine populations have increased 25 percent and 23 percent, respectively, during this timeframe.
- Overall, emissions from manure management increased 46 percent between 1990 and 2009. This encompassed an increase of 56 percent for CH₄, from 31.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 1990 to 49.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009; and an increase of 23 percent for N₂O, from 14.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 1990 to 17.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009. The majority of this increase was from swine and dairy cow manure, since the general trend in manure management is one of increasing use of liquid systems, which tends to produce greater CH₄ emissions.

Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry

When humans alter the terrestrial biosphere through land use, changes in land use, and land management practices, they also alter the background carbon fluxes between biomass, soils, and the atmosphere. Forest management practices, tree planting in urban areas, the management of agricultural soils, and the landfiling of yard trimmings and food scraps have resulted in an uptake (sequestration) of carbon in the United States, which offset about 15 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2009. Forests (including vegetation, soils, and harvested wood) accounted for approximately 85 percent of total 2009 net CO₂ flux, urban trees accounted for 9 percent, mineral and organic soil carbon stock changes accounted for 4 percent, and landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps accounted for 1 percent of the total net flux in 2009. The net forest sequestration is a result of net forest growth, increasing forest area, and a net accumulation of carbon stocks in harvested wood pools. The net sequestration in urban forests is a result of net tree growth and increased urban forest size. In agricultural soils, mineral and organic soils

sequester approximately 5.5 times as much C as is emitted from these soils through liming and urea fertilization. The mineral soil C sequestration is largely due to the conversion of cropland to hay production fields, the limited use of bare-summer fallow areas in semi-arid areas, and an increase in the adoption of conservation tillage practices. The landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps net sequestration is due to the long-term accumulation of yard trimming carbon and food scraps in landfills.

Land use, land-use change, and forestry activities in 2009 resulted in a net C sequestration of 1,015.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (276.8 Tg C) (Table 2-9). This represents an offset of approximately 18 percent of total U.S. CO₂ emissions, or 15 percent of total greenhouse gas emissions in 2009. Between 1990 and 2009, total land use, land-use change, and forestry net C flux resulted in a 17.8 percent increase in CO₂ sequestration.

Table 2-9: Net CO₂ Flux from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Sink Category	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Forest Land Remaining Forest							
Land	(681.1)	(378.3)	(911.5)	(917.5)	(911.9)	(891.0)	(863.1)
Cropland Remaining Cropland	(29.4)	(30.2)	(18.3)	(19.1)	(19.7)	(18.1)	(17.4)
Land Converted to Cropland	2.2	2.4	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9
Grassland Remaining Grassland	(52.2)	(52.6)	(8.9)	(8.8)	(8.6)	(8.5)	(8.3)
Land Converted to Grassland	(19.8)	(27.2)	(24.4)	(24.2)	(24.0)	(23.8)	(23.6)
Settlements Remaining							
Settlements	(57.1)	(77.5)	(87.8)	(89.8)	(91.9)	(93.9)	(95.9)
Other (Landfilled Yard Trimmings and Food Scraps)	(24.2)	(13.2)	(11.5)	(11.0)	(10.9)	(11.2)	(12.6)
Total	(861.5)	(576.6)	(1,056.5)	(1,064.3)	(1,060.9)	(1,040.5)	(1,015.1)

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Parentheses indicate net sequestration.

Land use, land-use change, and forestry source categories also resulted in emissions of CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O that are not included in the net CO₂ flux estimates presented in Table 2-9. The application of crushed limestone and dolomite to managed land (i.e., soil liming) and urea fertilization resulted in CO₂ emissions of 7.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009, an increase of about 10.6 percent relative to 1990. Lands undergoing peat extraction resulted in CO₂ emissions of 1.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1,090 Gg), and N₂O emissions of less than 0.01 Tg CO₂ Eq. N₂O emissions from the application of synthetic fertilizers to forest soils have increased from 0.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 1990 to 0.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009. Settlement soils in 2009 resulted in direct N₂O emissions of 1.5 Tg CO₂ Eq., a 55 percent increase relative to 1990. Emissions from forest fires in 2009 resulted in CH₄ emissions of 7.8 Tg CO₂ Eq., and in N₂O emissions of 6.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (Table 2-10).

Table 2-10: Emissions from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Source Category	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO₂	8.1	8.8	8.9	8.8	9.2	9.6	8.9
Cropland Remaining Cropland: Liming of Agricultural Soils	4.7	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.5	5.0	4.2
Cropland Remaining Cropland: Urea Fertilization	2.4	3.2	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.6	3.6
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands: Peatlands							
Remaining Peatlands	1.0	1.2	1.1	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1
CH₄	3.2	14.3	9.8	21.6	20.0	11.9	7.8
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land: Forest Fires	3.2	14.3	9.8	21.6	20.0	11.9	7.8
N₂O	3.7	13.2	9.8	19.5	18.3	11.6	8.3
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land: Forest Fires	2.6	11.7	8.0	17.6	16.3	9.8	6.4
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land: Forest Soils	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Settlements Remaining Settlements: Settlement Soils	1.0	1.1	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.5
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands: Peatlands							
Remaining Peatlands	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	15.0	36.3	28.6	49.8	47.5	33.2	25.0

+ Less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Other significant trends from 1990 to 2009 in land use, land-use change, and forestry emissions include:

- Net C sequestration by forest land has increased by almost 27 percent. This is primarily due to increased forest management and the effects of previous reforestation. The increase in intensive forest management resulted in higher growth rates and higher biomass density. The tree planting and conservation efforts of the 1970s and 1980s continue to have a significant impact on sequestration rates. Finally, the forested area in the United States increased over the past 20 years, although only at an average rate of 0.21 percent per year.
- Net sequestration of C by urban trees has increased by 68 percent over the period from 1990 to 2009. This is primarily due to an increase in urbanized land area in the United States.
- Annual C sequestration in landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps has decreased by 48 percent since 1990. This is due in part to a decrease in the amount of yard trimmings and food scraps generated. In addition, the proportion of yard trimmings and food scraps landfilled has decreased, as there has been a significant rise in the number of municipal composting facilities in the United States.

Waste

Waste management and treatment activities are sources of greenhouse gas emissions (see Figure 2-11). In 2009, landfills were the third largest source of anthropogenic CH₄ emissions, accounting for 17 percent of total U.S. CH₄ emissions.⁴⁷ Additionally, wastewater treatment accounts for 4 percent of U.S. CH₄ emissions, and 2 percent of N₂O emissions. Emissions of CH₄ and N₂O from composting grew from 1990 to 2009, and resulted in emissions of 3.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009. A summary of greenhouse gas emissions from the Waste chapter is presented in Table 2-11.

Figure 2-11: 2009 Waste Chapter Greenhouse Gas Sources

Overall, in 2009, waste activities generated emissions of 150.5 Tg CO₂ Eq., or 2.3 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions.

Table 2-11: Emissions from Waste (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CH₄	171.2	138.1	138.4	137.8	137.4	142.1	143.6
Landfills	147.4	111.7	112.5	111.7	111.3	115.9	117.5
Wastewater Treatment	23.5	25.2	24.3	24.5	24.4	24.5	24.5
Composting	0.3	1.3	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7
N₂O	4.0	5.9	6.5	6.6	6.7	6.8	6.9
Wastewater Treatment	3.7	4.5	4.8	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.0
Composting	0.4	1.4	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.8
Total	175.2	143.9	144.9	144.4	144.1	149.0	150.5

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Some significant trends in U.S. emissions from Waste include the following:

- Combined CO₂ and CH₄ emissions from composting have generally increased since 1990, from 0.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. to 3.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009, an over four-fold increase over the time series.
- From 1990 to 2009, net CH₄ emissions from landfills decreased by 29.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (20 percent), with small increases occurring in interim years. This downward trend in overall emissions is the result of increases in the amount of landfill gas collected and combusted,⁴⁸ which has more than offset the

⁴⁷ Landfills also store carbon, due to incomplete degradation of organic materials such as wood products and yard trimmings, as described in the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter.

⁴⁸ The CO₂ produced from combusted landfill CH₄ at landfills is not counted in national inventories as it is considered part of the natural C cycle of decomposition.

additional CH₄ emissions resulting from an increase in the amount of municipal solid waste landfilled.

- From 1990 to 2009, CH₄ and N₂O emissions from wastewater treatment increased by 1.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. (4.4 percent) and 1.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (36 percent), respectively.

2.2. Emissions by Economic Sector

Throughout this report, emission estimates are grouped into six sectors (i.e., chapters) defined by the IPCC and detailed above: Energy; Industrial Processes; Solvent and Other Product Use; Agriculture; Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry; and Waste. While it is important to use this characterization for consistency with UNFCCC reporting guidelines, it is also useful to allocate emissions into more commonly used sectoral categories. This section reports emissions by the following U.S. economic sectors: residential, commercial, industry, transportation, electricity generation, and agriculture, as well as U.S. territories.

Using this categorization, emissions from electricity generation accounted for the largest portion (33 percent) of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2009. Transportation activities, in aggregate, accounted for the second largest portion (27 percent). Emissions from industry accounted for about 20 percent of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2009. In contrast to electricity generation and transportation, emissions from industry have in general declined over the past decade. The long-term decline in these emissions has been due to structural changes in the U.S. economy (i.e., shifts from a manufacturing-based to a service-based economy), fuel switching, and efficiency improvements. The remaining 20 percent of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions were contributed by the residential, agriculture, and commercial sectors, plus emissions from U.S. territories. The residential sector accounted for 5 percent, and primarily consisted of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion. Activities related to agriculture accounted for roughly 7 percent of U.S. emissions; unlike other economic sectors, agricultural sector emissions were dominated by N₂O emissions from agricultural soil management and CH₄ emissions from enteric fermentation, rather than CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion. The commercial sector accounted for roughly 6 percent of emissions, while U.S. territories accounted for less than 1 percent.

CO₂ was also emitted and sequestered (in the form of C) by a variety of activities related to forest management practices, tree planting in urban areas, the management of agricultural soils, and landfilling of yard trimmings.

Table 2-12 presents a detailed breakdown of emissions from each of these economic sectors by source category, as they are defined in this report. Figure 2-12 shows the trend in emissions by sector from 1990 to 2009.

Figure 2-12: Emissions Allocated to Economic Sectors

Table 2-12: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Allocated to Economic Sectors (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent of Total in 2009)

Sector/Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	Percent ^a
Electric Power Industry	1,868.9	2,337.6	2,444.6	2,388.2	2,454.0	2,400.7	2,193.0	33.1%
CO ₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion	1,820.8	2,296.9	2,402.1	2,346.4	2,412.8	2,360.9	2,154.0	32.5%
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	28.4	16.0	15.1	14.1	13.2	13.3	12.8	0.2%
Incineration of Waste	8.5	11.5	12.9	12.9	13.1	12.5	12.7	0.2%
Stationary Combustion	8.6	10.6	11.0	10.8	11.0	10.8	9.7	0.1%
Limestone and Dolomite Use	2.6	2.5	3.4	4.0	3.9	3.1	3.8	0.1%
Transportation	1,545.2	1,932.3	2,017.4	1,994.4	2,003.8	1,890.7	1,812.4	27.3%
CO ₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion	1,485.9	1,809.5	1,896.6	1,878.1	1,894.0	1,789.9	1,719.7	25.9%
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	+	55.7	72.9	72.2	68.8	64.9	60.2	0.9%
Mobile Combustion	47.4	55.1	37.7	34.2	30.7	26.4	24.0	0.4%
Non-Energy Use of Fuels	11.8	12.1	10.2	9.9	10.2	9.5	8.5	0.1%
Industry	1,564.4	1,544.0	1,441.9	1,497.3	1,483.0	1,446.9	1,322.7	19.9%
CO ₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion	815.4	812.3	776.3	799.2	793.6	757.4	683.8	10.3%

Natural Gas Systems	227.4	239.2	220.4	248.4	236.2	244.6	253.4	3.8%
Non-Energy Use of Fuels	101.1	122.8	125.2	126.8	119.8	123.1	111.1	1.7%
Coal Mining	84.1	60.4	56.9	58.2	57.9	67.1	71.0	1.1%
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	100.5	86.9	66.6	69.5	71.7	66.7	42.2	0.6%
Petroleum Systems	35.9	32.0	29.9	29.8	30.4	30.7	31.4	0.5%
Cement Production	33.3	40.4	45.2	45.8	44.5	40.5	29.0	0.4%
Nitric Acid Production	17.7	19.4	16.5	16.2	19.2	16.4	14.6	0.2%
Ammonia Production and Urea Consumption	16.8	16.4	12.8	12.3	14.0	11.9	11.8	0.2%
Lime Production	11.5	14.1	14.4	15.1	14.6	14.3	11.2	0.2%
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	+	3.2	6.4	7.1	7.8	8.5	10.9	0.2%
Abandoned Underground Coal Mines	6.0	7.4	5.5	5.5	5.6	5.9	5.5	0.1%
HCFC-22 Production	36.4	28.6	15.8	13.8	17.0	13.6	5.4	0.1%
Semiconductor Manufacture	2.9	6.2	4.4	4.7	4.8	5.1	5.3	0.1%
Aluminum Production	25.4	14.7	7.1	6.3	8.1	7.2	4.6	0.1%
N ₂ O from Product Uses	4.4	4.9	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	0.1%
Soda Ash Production and Consumption	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.1	4.1	4.3	0.1%
Limestone and Dolomite Use	2.6	2.5	3.4	4.0	3.9	3.1	3.8	0.1%
Stationary Combustion	4.7	4.8	4.4	4.6	4.4	4.1	3.6	0.1%
Petrochemical Production	4.2	5.7	5.3	4.8	4.9	4.4	3.6	0.1%
Adipic Acid Production	15.8	5.5	5.0	4.3	3.7	2.0	1.9	+
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.7	1.9	1.8	1.8	+
Titanium Dioxide Production	1.2	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.5	+
Ferroalloy Production	2.2	1.9	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.5	+
Mobile Combustion	0.9	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	+
Magnesium Production and Processing	5.4	3.0	2.9	2.9	2.6	1.9	1.1	+
Phosphoric Acid Production	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.0	+
Zinc Production	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.0	+
Lead Production	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	+
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	+
Agriculture	429.0	485.1	493.2	516.7	520.7	503.9	490.0	7.4%
N ₂ O from Agricultural Soil Management	197.8	206.8	211.3	208.9	209.4	210.7	204.6	3.1%
Enteric Fermentation	132.1	136.5	136.5	138.8	141.0	140.6	139.8	2.1%
Manure Management	46.2	59.5	63.8	64.8	68.9	67.3	67.3	1.0%
CO ₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion	31.04	38.79	46.81	49.04	48.44	45.44	46.66	0.7%
CH ₄ and N ₂ O from Forest Fires	5.8	26.0	17.8	39.2	36.4	21.7	14.2	0.2%
Rice Cultivation	7.1	7.5	6.8	5.9	6.2	7.2	7.3	0.1%
Liming of Agricultural Soils	4.7	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.5	5.0	4.2	0.1%
Urea Fertilization	2.4	3.2	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.6	3.6	0.1%
CO ₂ and N ₂ O from Managed Peatlands	1.0	1.2	1.1	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	+
Mobile Combustion	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	+
N ₂ O from Forest Soils	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	+
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	+

Stationary Combustion	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Commercial	395.5	381.4	387.2	375.2	389.6	403.5	409.5	6.2%
CO ₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion	219.0	230.8	223.5	208.6	219.4	224.2	224.0	3.4%
Landfills	147.4	111.7	112.5	111.7	111.3	115.9	117.5	1.8%
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	+	5.4	17.6	21.1	24.9	29.1	33.7	0.5%
Wastewater Treatment	23.5	25.2	24.3	24.5	24.4	24.5	24.5	0.4%
Human Sewage	3.7	4.5	4.8	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.0	0.1%
Composting	0.7	2.6	3.3	3.3	3.5	3.5	3.5	0.1%
Stationary Combustion	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	+
Residential	345.1	386.2	371.0	335.8	358.9	367.1	360.1	5.4%
CO ₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion	338.3	370.7	357.9	321.5	342.4	348.2	339.2	5.1%
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	0.3	10.1	7.3	8.9	10.7	12.9	15.1	0.2%
Stationary Combustion	5.5	4.3	4.3	3.9	4.2	4.4	4.2	0.1%
Settlement Soil Fertilization	1.0	1.1	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.5	+
U.S. Territories	33.7	46.0	58.2	59.3	53.5	48.4	45.5	0.7%
CO ₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion	27.9	35.9	50.0	50.3	46.1	39.8	41.7	0.6%
Non-Energy Use of Fuels	5.7	10.0	8.1	8.8	7.2	8.4	3.7	0.1%
Stationary Combustion	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	+
Total Emissions	6,181.8	7,112.7	7,213.5	7,166.9	7,263.4	7,061.1	6,633.2	100.0%
Sinks	(861.5)	(576.6)	(1,056.5)	(1,064.3)	(1,060.9)	(1,040.5)	(1,015.1)	-15.3%
CO ₂ Flux from Forests ^b	(681.1)	(378.3)	(911.5)	(917.5)	(911.9)	(891.0)	(863.1)	-13.0%
Urban Trees	(57.1)	(77.5)	(87.8)	(89.8)	(91.9)	(93.9)	(95.9)	-1.4%
CO ₂ Flux from Agricultural Soil								
Carbon Stocks	(99.2)	(107.6)	(45.6)	(46.1)	(46.3)	(44.4)	(43.4)	-0.7%
Landfilled Yard Trimmings and Food Scraps	(24.2)	(13.2)	(11.5)	(11.0)	(10.9)	(11.2)	(12.6)	-0.2%
Net Emissions	5,320.3	6,536.1	6,157.1	6,102.6	6,202.5	6,020.7	5,618.2	84.7%

Note: Includes all emissions of CO₂, CH₄, N₂O, HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆. Parentheses indicate negative values or sequestration.

Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

ODS (Ozone Depleting Substances)

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq. or 0.05 percent.

^a Percent of total emissions for year 2009.

^b Includes the effects of net additions to stocks of carbon stored in harvested wood products.

Emissions with Electricity Distributed to Economic Sectors

It can also be useful to view greenhouse gas emissions from economic sectors with emissions related to electricity generation distributed into end-use categories (i.e., emissions from electricity generation are allocated to the economic sectors in which the electricity is consumed). The generation, transmission, and distribution of electricity, which is the largest economic sector in the United States, accounted for 33 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2009. Emissions increased by 17 percent since 1990, as electricity demand grew and fossil fuels remained the dominant energy source for generation. Electricity generation-related emissions decreased from 2008 to 2009 by 9 percent, primarily due to decreased CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion. The decrease in electricity-related emissions was due to decreased economic output and the resulting decrease in electricity demand. Electricity-related emissions also declined due to a decrease in the carbon intensity of fuels used to generate electricity. This was caused by fuel switching as the price of coal increased and the price natural gas decreased significantly. The fuel switching from coal to natural gas and additional electricity generation from other energy sources in 2009, which included a 7 percent increase in hydropower generation from the previous year, resulted in a decrease in carbon intensity, and in turn, a decrease in emissions from electricity generation. The electricity generation sector in the United States is composed of traditional electric utilities as well as other entities, such as power marketers and non-utility power producers. The majority of electricity generated by these entities was

through the combustion of coal in boilers to produce high-pressure steam that is passed through a turbine. Table 2-13 provides a detailed summary of emissions from electricity generation-related activities.

Table 2-13: Electricity Generation-Related Greenhouse Gas Emissions (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Fuel Type or Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO₂	1,831.4	2,310.5	2,418.0	2,363.0	2,429.4	2,376.2	2,170.1
CO ₂ from Fossil Fuel							
Combustion	1,820.8	2,296.9	2,402.1	2,346.4	2,412.8	2,360.9	2,154.0
<i>Coal</i>	<i>1,547.6</i>	<i>1,927.4</i>	<i>1,983.8</i>	<i>1,953.7</i>	<i>1,987.3</i>	<i>1,959.4</i>	<i>1,747.6</i>
<i>Natural Gas</i>	<i>175.3</i>	<i>280.8</i>	<i>318.8</i>	<i>338.0</i>	<i>371.3</i>	<i>361.9</i>	<i>373.1</i>
<i>Petroleum</i>	<i>97.5</i>	<i>88.4</i>	<i>99.2</i>	<i>54.4</i>	<i>53.9</i>	<i>39.2</i>	<i>32.9</i>
<i>Geothermal</i>	<i>0.4</i>	<i>0.4</i>	<i>0.4</i>	<i>0.4</i>	<i>0.4</i>	<i>0.4</i>	<i>0.4</i>
Incineration of Waste	8.0	11.1	12.5	12.5	12.7	12.2	12.3
Limestone and Dolomite Use	2.6	2.5	3.4	4.0	3.9	3.1	3.8
CH₄	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
Stationary Combustion*	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
Incineration of Waste	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N₂O	8.5	10.4	10.7	10.5	10.6	10.4	9.4
Stationary Combustion*	8.1	10.0	10.3	10.1	10.2	10.1	9.0
Incineration of Waste	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
SF₆	28.4	16.0	15.1	14.1	13.2	13.3	12.8
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	28.4	16.0	15.1	14.1	13.2	13.3	12.8
Total	1,868.9	2,337.6	2,444.6	2,388.2	2,454.0	2,400.7	2,193.0

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

* Includes only stationary combustion emissions related to the generation of electricity.

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq. or 0.05 percent.

To distribute electricity emissions among economic end-use sectors, emissions from the source categories assigned to the electricity generation sector were allocated to the residential, commercial, industry, transportation, and agriculture economic sectors according to retail sales of electricity (EIA 2010 and Duffield 2006). These three source categories include CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion, CH₄ and N₂O from Stationary Combustion, and SF₆ from Electrical Transmission and Distribution Systems.⁴⁹

When emissions from electricity are distributed among these sectors, industry activities account for the largest share of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions (28.8 percent), followed closely by emissions from transportation (27.4 percent). Emissions from the residential and commercial sectors also increase substantially when emissions from electricity are included. In all sectors except agriculture, CO₂ accounts for more than 80 percent of greenhouse gas emissions, primarily from the combustion of fossil fuels.

Table 2-14 presents a detailed breakdown of emissions from each of these economic sectors, with emissions from electricity generation distributed to them. Figure 2-13 shows the trend in these emissions by sector from 1990 to 2009.

Figure 2-13: Emissions with Electricity Distributed to Economic Sectors

Table 2-14: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions by Economic Sector and Gas with Electricity-Related Emissions Distributed (Tg CO₂ Eq.) and Percent of Total in 2009

Sector/Gas	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	Percent ^a
Industry	2,238.3	2,314.4	2,162.5	2,194.6	2,192.9	2,146.5	1,910.9	28.8%
Direct Emissions	<i>1,564.4</i>	<i>1,544.0</i>	<i>1,441.9</i>	<i>1,497.3</i>	<i>1,483.0</i>	<i>1,446.9</i>	<i>1,322.7</i>	19.9%

⁴⁹ Emissions were not distributed to U.S. territories, since the electricity generation sector only includes emissions related to the generation of electricity in the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

CO ₂	1,140.5	1,147.9	1,093.8	1,123.1	1,113.7	1,070.1	942.7	14.2%
CH ₄	318.8	312.5	285.7	314.1	301.9	318.1	331.2	5.0%
N ₂ O	41.8	34.0	30.0	29.1	31.4	26.8	24.5	0.4%
HFCs, PFCs, and SF ₆	63.3	49.6	32.5	31.0	36.0	31.9	24.2	0.4%
Electricity-Related	673.9	770.4	720.5	697.3	709.9	699.7	588.3	8.9%
CO ₂	660.3	761.5	712.7	689.9	702.8	692.5	582.2	8.8%
CH ₄	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	+
N ₂ O	3.1	3.4	3.2	3.1	3.1	3.0	2.5	+
SF ₆	10.2	5.3	4.5	4.1	3.8	3.9	3.4	0.1%
Transportation	1,548.3	1,935.8	2,022.2	1,999.0	2,008.9	1,895.5	1,816.9	27.4%
Direct Emissions	1,545.2	1,932.3	2,017.4	1,994.4	2,003.8	1,890.7	1,812.4	27.3%
CO ₂	1,497.8	1,821.6	1,906.8	1,888.0	1,904.2	1,799.4	1,728.2	26.1%
CH ₄	4.5	3.1	2.2	2.0	1.9	1.7	1.6	+
N ₂ O	42.9	51.9	35.5	32.1	28.8	24.6	22.4	0.3%
HFCs ^b	+	55.7	72.9	72.2	68.8	64.9	60.2	0.9%
Electricity-Related	3.1	3.5	4.8	4.6	5.1	4.7	4.5	0.1%
CO ₂	3.1	3.5	4.8	4.6	5.1	4.7	4.5	0.1%
CH ₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N ₂ O	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
SF ₆	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Commercial	947.7	1,135.8	1,205.1	1,188.5	1,225.3	1,224.5	1,184.9	17.9%
Direct Emissions	395.5	381.4	387.2	375.2	389.6	403.5	409.5	6.2%
CO ₂	219.0	230.8	223.5	208.6	219.4	224.2	224.0	3.4%
CH ₄	172.1	139.0	139.3	138.7	138.2	143.1	144.5	2.2%
N ₂ O	4.4	6.2	6.8	6.9	7.1	7.2	7.2	0.1%
HFCs	+	5.4	17.6	21.1	24.9	29.1	33.7	0.5%
Electricity-Related	552.2	754.4	817.9	813.2	835.7	821.0	775.4	11.7%
CO ₂	541.1	745.7	809.0	804.7	827.4	812.7	767.4	11.6%
CH ₄	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	+
N ₂ O	2.5	3.3	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.3	+
SF ₆	8.4	5.2	5.1	4.8	4.5	4.6	4.5	0.1%
Residential	953.8	1,162.2	1,242.9	1,181.5	1,229.6	1,215.1	1,158.9	17.5%
Direct Emissions	345.1	386.2	371.0	335.8	358.9	367.1	360.1	5.4%
CO ₂	338.3	370.7	357.9	321.5	342.4	348.2	339.2	5.1%
CH ₄	4.4	3.4	3.4	3.1	3.4	3.5	3.4	0.1%
N ₂ O	2.1	2.1	2.4	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.4	+
HFCs	0.3	10.1	7.3	8.9	10.7	12.9	15.1	0.2%
Electricity-Related	608.7	775.9	871.9	845.6	870.7	848.1	798.8	12.0%
CO ₂	596.5	767.0	862.4	836.7	862.0	839.4	790.5	11.9%
CH ₄	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	+
N ₂ O	2.8	3.4	3.8	3.7	3.8	3.7	3.4	0.1%
SF ₆	9.2	5.3	5.4	5.0	4.7	4.7	4.7	0.1%
Agriculture	460.0	518.4	522.7	544.1	553.2	531.1	516.0	7.8%
Direct Emissions	429.0	485.1	493.2	516.7	520.7	503.9	490.0	7.4%
CO ₂	39.2	47.6	55.7	57.8	57.7	55.1	55.6	0.8%
CH ₄	174.5	201.1	200.1	213.4	218.4	209.6	204.8	3.1%
N ₂ O	215.3	236.4	237.4	245.4	244.7	239.2	229.7	3.5%
Electricity-Related	31.0	33.3	29.4	27.4	32.5	27.2	25.9	0.4%
CO ₂	30.4	32.9	29.1	27.1	32.2	26.9	25.7	0.4%
CH ₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N ₂ O	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	+
SF ₆	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	+
U.S. Territories	33.7	46.0	58.2	59.3	53.5	48.4	45.5	0.7%
Total	6,181.8	7,112.7	7,213.5	7,166.9	7,263.4	7,061.1	6,633.2	100.0%

Note: Emissions from electricity generation are allocated based on aggregate electricity consumption in each end-use sector. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq. or 0.05 percent.

^a Percent of total emissions for year 2009.

^b Includes primarily HFC-134a.

Industry

The industrial end-use sector includes CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion from all manufacturing facilities, in aggregate. This sector also includes emissions that are produced as a by-product of the non-energy-related industrial process activities. The variety of activities producing these non-energy-related emissions includes methane emissions from petroleum and natural gas systems, fugitive CH₄ emissions from coal mining, by-product CO₂ emissions from cement manufacture, and HFC, PFC, and SF₆ by-product emissions from semiconductor manufacture, to name a few. Since 1990, industrial sector emissions have declined. The decline has occurred both in direct emissions and indirect emissions associated with electricity use. However, the decline in direct emissions has been sharper. In theory, emissions from the industrial end-use sector should be highly correlated with economic growth and industrial output, but heating of industrial buildings and agricultural energy consumption are also affected by weather conditions. In addition, structural changes within the U.S. economy that lead to shifts in industrial output away from energy-intensive manufacturing products to less energy-intensive products (e.g., from steel to computer equipment) also have a significant effect on industrial emissions.

Transportation

When electricity-related emissions are distributed to economic end-use sectors, transportation activities accounted for 27 percent of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2009. The largest sources of transportation greenhouse gases in 2009 were passenger cars (35 percent), light duty trucks, which include sport utility vehicles, pickup trucks, and minivans (30 percent), freight trucks (20 percent) and commercial aircraft (6 percent). These figures include direct emissions from fossil fuel combustion, as well as HFC emissions from mobile air conditioners and refrigerated transport allocated to these vehicle types. Table 2-15 provides a detailed summary of greenhouse gas emissions from transportation-related activities with electricity-related emissions included in the totals.

From 1990 to 2009, transportation emissions rose by 17 percent due, in large part, to increased demand for travel and the stagnation of fuel efficiency across the U.S. vehicle fleet. The number of vehicle miles traveled by light-duty motor vehicles (passenger cars and light-duty trucks) increased 39 percent from 1990 to 2009, as a result of a confluence of factors including population growth, economic growth, urban sprawl, and low fuel prices over much of this period.

From 2008 to 2009, CO₂ emissions from the transportation end-use sector declined 4 percent. The decrease in emissions can largely be attributed to decreased economic activity in 2009 and an associated decline in the demand for transportation. Modes such as medium- and heavy-duty trucks were significantly impacted by the decline in freight transport. Similarly, increased jet fuel prices were a factor in the 19 percent decrease in commercial aircraft emissions since 2007.

Almost all of the energy consumed for transportation was supplied by petroleum-based products, with more than half being related to gasoline consumption in automobiles and other highway vehicles. Other fuel uses, especially diesel fuel for freight trucks and jet fuel for aircraft, accounted for the remainder. The primary driver of transportation-related emissions was CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion, which increased by 16 percent from 1990 to 2009. This rise in CO₂ emissions, combined with an increase in HFCs from close to zero emissions in 1990 to 60.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009, led to an increase in overall emissions from transportation activities of 17 percent.

Although average fuel economy over this period increased slightly due primarily to the retirement of older vehicles, average fuel economy among new vehicles sold annually gradually declined from 1990 to 2004. The decline in new vehicle fuel economy between 1990 and 2004 reflected the increasing market share of light duty trucks, which grew from about one-fifth of new vehicle sales in the 1970s to slightly over half of the market by 2004. Increasing fuel prices have since decreased the momentum of light duty truck sales, and average new vehicle fuel economy has improved since 2005 as the market share of passenger cars increased. VMT growth among all passenger vehicles has also been impacted, remaining stagnant from 2004 to 2007, compared to an average annual growth rate of 2.5 percent over the period 1990 to 2004. The recession supplemented the effect of increasing fuel prices in 2008 and VMT declined by 2.1 percent, the first decrease in annual passenger vehicle VMT since 1990. Overall, VMT grew by 0.2 percent in 2009. Gasoline fuel consumption increased slightly, while consumption of diesel fuel continued to

decrease, due in part to a decrease in commercial activity and freight trucking as a result of the economic recession.

Table 2-15: Transportation-Related Greenhouse Gas Emissions (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Vehicle Type	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Passenger Cars	657.4	695.3	709.5	682.9	672.0	632.5	627.4
CO ₂	629.3	644.2	662.3	639.1	632.8	597.9	597.2
CH ₄	2.6	1.6	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.7
N ₂ O	25.4	25.2	17.8	15.7	13.8	11.7	10.1
HFCs	+	24.3	28.4	27.1	24.6	22.1	19.3
Light-Duty Trucks	336.6	512.1	551.3	564.0	570.3	553.8	551.0
CO ₂	321.1	467.0	505.9	519.5	528.4	515.1	514.5
CH ₄	1.4	1.1	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6
N ₂ O	14.1	22.4	13.7	12.6	11.2	9.5	9.4
HFCs	+	21.7	31.0	31.2	30.1	28.6	26.6
Medium- and Heavy-Duty Trucks	231.1	354.6	408.4	418.6	425.2	403.1	365.6
CO ₂	230.1	345.8	396.0	406.1	412.5	390.4	353.1
CH ₄	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
N ₂ O	0.8	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.0	0.8
HFCs	+	7.4	11.1	11.4	11.5	11.6	11.6
Buses	8.4	11.2	12.0	12.3	12.5	12.2	11.2
CO ₂	8.4	11.1	11.8	12.0	12.1	11.8	10.8
CH ₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N ₂ O	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
HFCs	+	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4
Motorcycles	1.8	1.9	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.2	2.2
CO ₂	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.1
CH ₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N ₂ O	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Commercial Aircraft^a	136.8	170.9	162.8	138.5	139.5	123.4	112.5
CO ₂	135.4	169.2	161.2	137.1	138.1	122.2	111.4
CH ₄	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
N ₂ O	1.3	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.1
Other Aircraft^b	44.4	33.5	35.9	35.1	33.2	35.2	29.6
CO ₂	43.9	33.1	35.5	34.7	32.8	34.8	29.3
CH ₄	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	+
N ₂ O	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Ships and Boats^c	45.1	61.0	45.2	48.4	55.2	37.1	30.5
CO ₂	44.5	60.0	44.5	47.7	54.4	36.6	30.0
CH ₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N ₂ O	0.6	0.9	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.5	0.4
HFCs	+	0.1	+	+	+	+	+
Rail	39.0	48.1	53.0	55.1	54.3	50.6	43.3
CO ₂	38.5	45.6	50.3	52.4	51.6	47.9	40.6
CH ₄	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
N ₂ O	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3
HFCs	+	2.0	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.3
Other Emissions from Electricity Generation ^d	0.1	+	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Pipelines^e	36.0	35.2	32.2	32.3	34.3	35.7	35.2
CO ₂	36.0	35.2	32.2	32.3	34.3	35.7	35.2
Lubricants	11.8	12.1	10.2	9.9	10.2	9.5	8.5
CO ₂	11.8	12.1	10.2	9.9	10.2	9.5	8.5
Total Transportation	1,548.3	1,935.8	2,022.2	1,999.0	2,008.9	1,895.4	1,816.9
<i>International Bunker</i>	<i>113.0</i>	<i>99.5</i>	<i>110.9</i>	<i>129.7</i>	<i>129.0</i>	<i>135.1</i>	<i>124.4</i>

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Passenger cars and light-duty trucks include vehicles typically used for personal travel and less than 8500 lbs; medium- and heavy-duty trucks include vehicles larger than 8500 lbs. HFC emissions primarily reflect HFC-134a.

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

^a Consists of emissions from jet fuel consumed by domestic operations of commercial aircraft (no bunkers).

^b Consists of emissions from jet fuel and aviation gasoline consumption by general aviation and military aircraft.

^c Fluctuations in emission estimates are associated with fluctuations in reported fuel consumption, and may reflect data collection problems.

^d Other emissions from electricity generation are a result of waste incineration (as the majority of municipal solid waste is combusted in “trash-to-steam” electricity generation plants), electrical transmission and distribution, and a portion of limestone and dolomite use (from pollution control equipment installed in electricity generation plants).

^e CO₂ estimates reflect natural gas used to power pipelines, but not electricity. While the operation of pipelines produces CH₄ and N₂O, these emissions are not directly attributed to pipelines in the US Inventory.

^f Emissions from International Bunker Fuels include emissions from both civilian and military activities; these emissions are not included in the transportation totals.

Commercial

The commercial sector is heavily reliant on electricity for meeting energy needs, with electricity consumption for lighting, heating, air conditioning, and operating appliances. The remaining emissions were largely due to the direct consumption of natural gas and petroleum products, primarily for heating and cooking needs. Energy-related emissions from the residential and commercial sectors have generally been increasing since 1990, and are often correlated with short-term fluctuations in energy consumption caused by weather conditions, rather than prevailing economic conditions. Landfills and wastewater treatment are included in this sector, with landfill emissions decreasing since 1990 and wastewater treatment emissions increasing slightly.

Residential

The residential sector is heavily reliant on electricity for meeting energy needs, with electricity consumption for lighting, heating, air conditioning, and operating appliances. The remaining emissions were largely due to the direct consumption of natural gas and petroleum products, primarily for heating and cooking needs. Emissions from the residential sectors have generally been increasing since 1990, and are often correlated with short-term fluctuations in energy consumption caused by weather conditions, rather than prevailing economic conditions. In the long-term, this sector is also affected by population growth, regional migration trends, and changes in housing and building attributes (e.g., size and insulation).

Agriculture

The agriculture sector includes a variety of processes, including enteric fermentation in domestic livestock, livestock manure management, and agricultural soil management. In 2009, agricultural soil management was the largest source of N₂O emissions, and enteric fermentation was the second largest source of CH₄ emissions in the United States. This sector also includes small amounts of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion by motorized farm equipment like tractors. The agriculture sector relies less heavily on electricity than the other sectors.

[BEGIN BOX]

Box 2-1: Methodology for Aggregating Emissions by Economic Sector

In presenting the Economic Sectors in the annual Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks, the Inventory expands upon the standard IPCC sectors common for UNFCCC reporting. Discussing greenhouse gas emissions relevant to U.S.-specific sectors improves communication of the report’s findings.

In the Electricity Generation economic sector, CO₂ emissions from the combustion of fossil fuels included in the

EIA electric utility fuel consuming sector are apportioned to this economic sector. Stationary combustion emissions of CH₄ and N₂O are also based on the EIA electric utility sector. Additional sources include CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O from waste incineration, as the majority of municipal solid waste is combusted in “trash-to-steam” electricity generation plants. The Electricity Generation economic sector also includes SF₆ from Electrical Transmission and Distribution, and a portion of CO₂ from Limestone and Dolomite Use (from pollution control equipment installed in electricity generation plants).

In the Transportation economic sector, the CO₂ emissions from the combustion of fossil fuels included in the EIA transportation fuel consuming sector are apportioned to this economic sector (additional analyses and refinement of the EIA data is further explained in the Energy chapter of this report). Additional emissions are apportioned from the CH₄ and N₂O from Mobile Combustion, based on the EIA transportation sector. Substitutes of Ozone Depleting Substitutes are apportioned based on their specific end-uses within the source category, with emissions from transportation refrigeration/air-conditioning systems to this economic sector. Finally, CO₂ emissions from Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels identified as lubricants for transportation vehicles are included in the Transportation economic sector.

For the Industry economic sector, the CO₂ emissions from the combustion of fossil fuels included in the EIA industrial fuel consuming sector, minus the agricultural use of fuel explained below, are apportioned to this economic sector. Stationary and mobile combustion emissions of CH₄ and N₂O are also based on the EIA industrial sector, minus emissions apportioned to the Agriculture economic sector described below. Substitutes of Ozone Depleting Substitutes are apportioned based on their specific end-uses within the source category, with most emissions falling within the Industry economic sector (minus emissions from the other economic sectors). Additionally, all process-related emissions from sources with methods considered within the IPCC Industrial Process guidance have been apportioned to this economic sector. This includes the process-related emissions (i.e., emissions from the actual process to make the material, not from fuels to power the plant) from such activities as Cement Production, Iron and Steel Production and Metallurgical Coke Production, and Ammonia Production. Additionally, fugitive emissions from energy production sources, such as Natural Gas Systems, Coal Mining, and Petroleum Systems are included in the Industry economic sector. A portion of CO₂ from Limestone and Dolomite Use (from pollution control equipment installed in large industrial facilities) are also included in the Industry economic sector. Finally, all remaining CO₂ emissions from Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels are assumed to be industrial in nature (besides the lubricants for transportation vehicles specified above), and are attributed to the Industry economic sector.

As agriculture equipment is included in EIA’s industrial fuel consuming sector surveys, additional data is used to extract the fuel used by agricultural equipment, to allow for accurate reporting in the Agriculture economic sector from all sources of emissions, such as motorized farming equipment. Energy consumption estimates are obtained from Department of Agriculture survey data, in combination with separate EIA fuel sales reports. This supplementary data is used to apportion CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion, and CH₄ and N₂O emissions from stationary and mobile combustion (all data is removed from the Industrial economic sector, to avoid double-counting). The other emission sources included in this economic sector are intuitive for the agriculture sectors, such as N₂O emissions from Agricultural Soils, CH₄ from Enteric Fermentation (i.e., exhalation from the digestive tracts of domesticated animals), CH₄ and N₂O from Manure Management, CH₄ from Rice Cultivation, CO₂ emissions from Liming of Agricultural Soils and Urea Application, and CH₄ and N₂O from Forest Fires. N₂O emissions from the Application of Fertilizers to tree plantations (termed “forest land” by the IPCC) are also included in the Agriculture economic sector.

The Residential economic sector includes the CO₂ emissions from the combustion of fossil fuels reported for the EIA residential sector. Stationary combustion emissions of CH₄ and N₂O are also based on the EIA residential fuel consuming sector. Substitutes of Ozone Depleting Substitutes are apportioned based on their specific end-uses within the source category, with emissions from residential air-conditioning systems to this economic sector. N₂O emissions from the Application of Fertilizers to developed land (termed “settlements” by the IPCC) are also included in the Residential economic sector.

The Commercial economic sector includes the CO₂ emissions from the combustion of fossil fuels reported in the EIA commercial fuel consuming sector data. Stationary combustion emissions of CH₄ and N₂O are also based on the EIA commercial sector. Substitutes of Ozone Depleting Substitutes are apportioned based on their specific end-uses within the source category, with emissions from commercial refrigeration/air-conditioning systems to this economic sector. Public works sources including direct CH₄ from Landfills and CH₄ and N₂O from Wastewater Treatment and

Composting are included in this economic sector.

[END BOX]

[BEGIN BOX]

Box 2-2: Recent Trends in Various U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions-Related Data

Total emissions can be compared to other economic and social indices to highlight changes over time. These comparisons include: (1) emissions per unit of aggregate energy consumption, because energy-related activities are the largest sources of emissions; (2) emissions per unit of fossil fuel consumption, because almost all energy-related emissions involve the combustion of fossil fuels; (3) emissions per unit of electricity consumption, because the electric power industry—utilities and non-utilities combined—was the largest source of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2009; (4) emissions per unit of total gross domestic product as a measure of national economic activity; or (5) emissions per capita.

Table 2-16 provides data on various statistics related to U.S. greenhouse gas emissions normalized to 1990 as a baseline year. Greenhouse gas emissions in the United States have grown at an average annual rate of 0.4 percent since 1990. This rate is slightly slower than that for total energy consumption and growth in national population since 1990 and much slower than that for electricity consumption and overall gross domestic product, respectively. Total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions are growing at a rate similar to that of fossil fuel consumption since 1990 (see Table 2-16).

Table 2-16: Recent Trends in Various U.S. Data (Index 1990 = 100)

Variable	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	Growth Rate ^a
GDP ^b	100	140	157	162	165	165	160	2.5%
Electricity Consumption ^c	100	127	134	135	138	138	132	1.5%
Fossil Fuel Consumption ^c	100	117	119	117	119	116	108	0.5%
Energy Consumption ^c	100	116	118	118	120	118	112	0.6%
Population ^d	100	113	118	120	121	122	123	1.1%
Greenhouse Gas Emissions ^e	100	115	117	116	117	114	107	0.4%

^a Average annual growth rate

^b Gross Domestic Product in chained 2005 dollars (BEA 2010)

^c Energy-content-weighted values (EIA 2010)

^d U.S. Census Bureau (2010)

^e GWP-weighted values

Figure 2-14: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Per Capita and Per Dollar of Gross Domestic Product

Source: BEA (2010), U.S. Census Bureau (2010), and emission estimates in this report.

[END BOX]

2.3. Indirect Greenhouse Gas Emissions (CO, NO_x, NMVOCs, and SO₂)

The reporting requirements of the UNFCCC⁵⁰ request that information be provided on indirect greenhouse gases, which include CO, NO_x, NMVOCs, and SO₂. These gases do not have a direct global warming effect, but indirectly affect terrestrial radiation absorption by influencing the formation and destruction of tropospheric and stratospheric ozone, or, in the case of SO₂, by affecting the absorptive characteristics of the atmosphere. Additionally, some of

⁵⁰ See <<http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/cop8/08.pdf>>.

these gases may react with other chemical compounds in the atmosphere to form compounds that are greenhouse gases. Carbon monoxide is produced when carbon-containing fuels are combusted incompletely. Nitrogen oxides (i.e., NO and NO₂) are created by lightning, fires, fossil fuel combustion, and in the stratosphere from N₂O. Non-CH₄ volatile organic compounds—which include hundreds of organic compounds that participate in atmospheric chemical reactions (i.e., propane, butane, xylene, toluene, ethane, and many others)—are emitted primarily from transportation, industrial processes, and non-industrial consumption of organic solvents. In the United States, SO₂ is primarily emitted from coal combustion for electric power generation and the metals industry. Sulfur-containing compounds emitted into the atmosphere tend to exert a negative radiative forcing (i.e., cooling) and therefore are discussed separately.

One important indirect climate change effect of NMVOCs and NO_x is their role as precursors for tropospheric ozone formation. They can also alter the atmospheric lifetimes of other greenhouse gases. Another example of indirect greenhouse gas formation into greenhouse gases is CO's interaction with the hydroxyl radical—the major atmospheric sink for CH₄ emissions—to form CO₂. Therefore, increased atmospheric concentrations of CO limit the number of hydroxyl molecules (OH) available to destroy CH₄.

Since 1970, the United States has published estimates of annual emissions of CO, NO_x, NMVOCs, and SO₂ (EPA 2010, EPA 2009),⁵¹ which are regulated under the Clean Air Act. Table 2-17 shows that fuel combustion accounts for the majority of emissions of these indirect greenhouse gases. Industrial processes—such as the manufacture of chemical and allied products, metals processing, and industrial uses of solvents—are also significant sources of CO, NO_x, and NMVOCs.

Table 2-17: Emissions of NO_x, CO, NMVOCs, and SO₂ (Gg)

Gas/Activity	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
NO_x	21,707	19,116	15,900	15,039	14,380	13,547	11,468
Mobile Fossil Fuel							
Combustion	10,862	10,199	9,012	8,488	7,965	7,441	6,206
Stationary Fossil Fuel							
Combustion	10,023	8,053	5,858	5,545	5,432	5,148	4,159
Industrial Processes	591	626	569	553	537	520	568
Oil and Gas Activities	139	111	321	319	318	318	393
Incineration of Waste	82	114	129	121	114	106	128
Agricultural Burning	8	8	6	7	8	8	8
Solvent Use	1	3	3	4	4	4	3
Waste	0	2	2	2	2	2	2
CO	130,038	92,243	70,809	67,238	63,625	60,039	51,452
Mobile Fossil Fuel							
Combustion	119,360	83,559	62,692	58,972	55,253	51,533	43,355
Stationary Fossil Fuel							
Combustion	5,000	4,340	4,649	4,695	4,744	4,792	4,543
Industrial Processes	4,125	2,216	1,555	1,597	1,640	1,682	1,549
Incineration of Waste	978	1,670	1,403	1,412	1,421	1,430	1,403
Agricultural Burning	268	259	184	233	237	270	247
Oil and Gas Activities	302	146	318	319	320	322	345
Waste	1	8	7	7	7	7	7
Solvent Use	5	45	2	2	2	2	2
NMVOCs	20,930	15,227	13,761	13,594	13,423	13,254	9,313
Mobile Fossil Fuel							
Combustion	10,932	7,229	6,330	6,037	5,742	5,447	4,151
Solvent Use	5,216	4,384	3,851	3,846	3,839	3,834	2,583
Industrial Processes	2,422	1,773	1,997	1,933	1,869	1,804	1,322
Stationary Fossil Fuel							
Combustion	912	1,077	716	918	1,120	1,321	424

⁵¹ NO_x and CO emission estimates from field burning of agricultural residues were estimated separately, and therefore not taken from EPA (2009) and EPA (2010).

Oil and Gas Activities	554	388	510	510	509	509	599
Incineration of Waste	222	257	241	238	234	230	159
Waste	673	119	114	113	111	109	76
Agricultural Burning	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
SO₂	20,935	14,830	13,466	12,388	11,799	10,368	8,599
Stationary Fossil Fuel							
Combustion	18,407	12,849	11,541	10,612	10,172	8,891	7,167
Industrial Processes	1,307	1,031	831	818	807	795	798
Mobile Fossil Fuel							
Combustion	793	632	889	750	611	472	455
Oil and Gas Activities	390	287	181	182	184	187	154
Incineration of Waste	38	29	24	24	24	23	24
Waste	0	1	1	1	1	1	1
Solvent Use	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Agricultural Burning	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA

Source: (EPA 2010, EPA 2009) except for estimates from field burning of agricultural residues.

NA (Not Available)

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

[BEGIN BOX]

Box 2-3: Sources and Effects of Sulfur Dioxide

Sulfur dioxide (SO₂) emitted into the atmosphere through natural and anthropogenic processes affects the earth's radiative budget through its photochemical transformation into sulfate aerosols that can (1) scatter radiation from the sun back to space, thereby reducing the radiation reaching the earth's surface; (2) affect cloud formation; and (3) affect atmospheric chemical composition (e.g., by providing surfaces for heterogeneous chemical reactions). The indirect effect of sulfur-derived aerosols on radiative forcing can be considered in two parts. The first indirect effect is the aerosols' tendency to decrease water droplet size and increase water droplet concentration in the atmosphere. The second indirect effect is the tendency of the reduction in cloud droplet size to affect precipitation by increasing cloud lifetime and thickness. Although still highly uncertain, the radiative forcing estimates from both the first and the second indirect effect are believed to be negative, as is the combined radiative forcing of the two (IPCC 2001). However, because SO₂ is short-lived and unevenly distributed in the atmosphere, its radiative forcing impacts are highly uncertain.

Sulfur dioxide is also a major contributor to the formation of regional haze, which can cause significant increases in acute and chronic respiratory diseases. Once SO₂ is emitted, it is chemically transformed in the atmosphere and returns to the earth as the primary source of acid rain. Because of these harmful effects, the United States has regulated SO₂ emissions in the Clean Air Act.

Electricity generation is the largest anthropogenic source of SO₂ emissions in the United States, accounting for 83 percent in 2009. Coal combustion contributes nearly all of those emissions (approximately 92 percent). Sulfur dioxide emissions have decreased in recent years, primarily as a result of electric power generators switching from high-sulfur to low-sulfur coal and installing flue gas desulfurization equipment.

[END BOX]

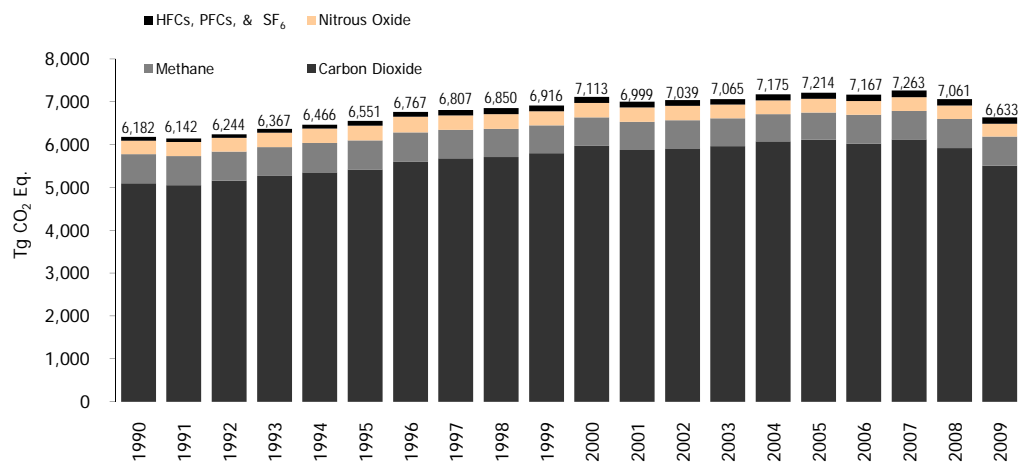


Figure 2-1: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions by Gas

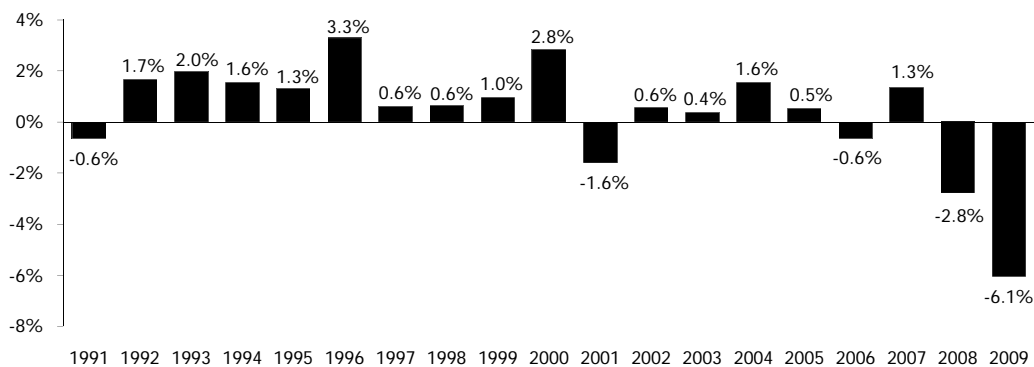


Figure 2-2: Annual Percent Change in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions

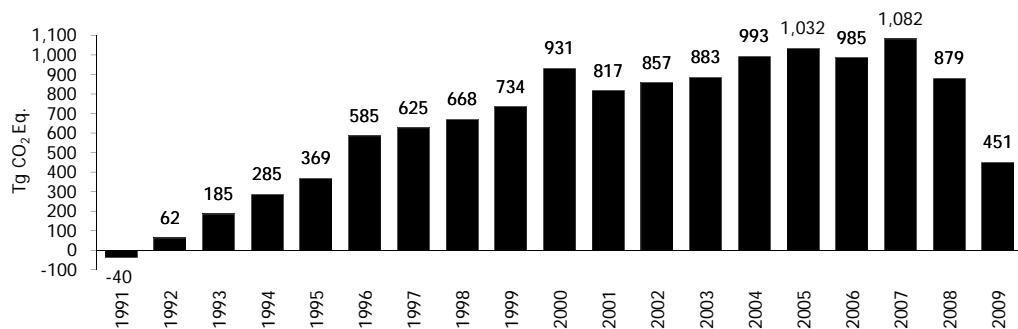


Figure 2-3: Cumulative Change in Annual U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Relative to 1990

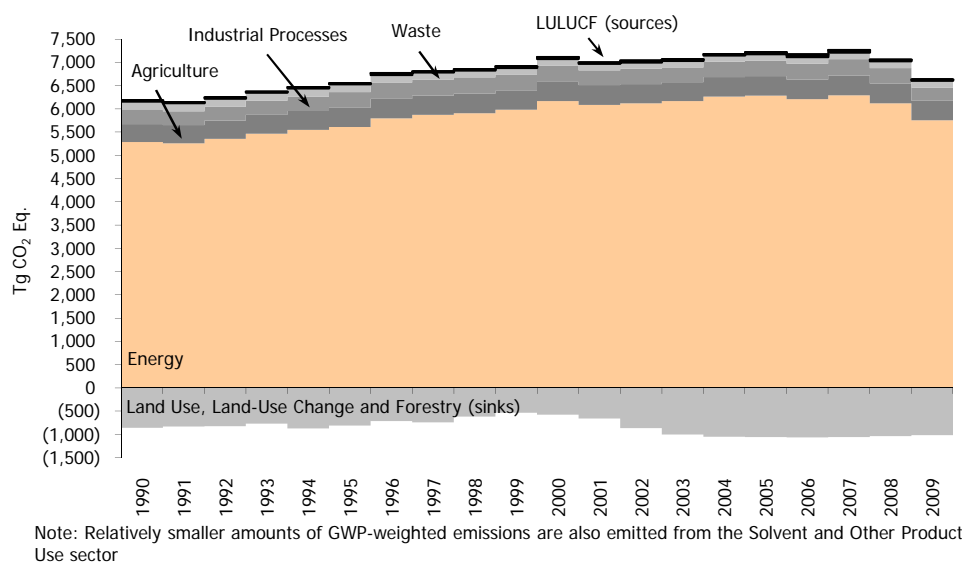


Figure 2-4: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks by Chapter/IPCC Sector

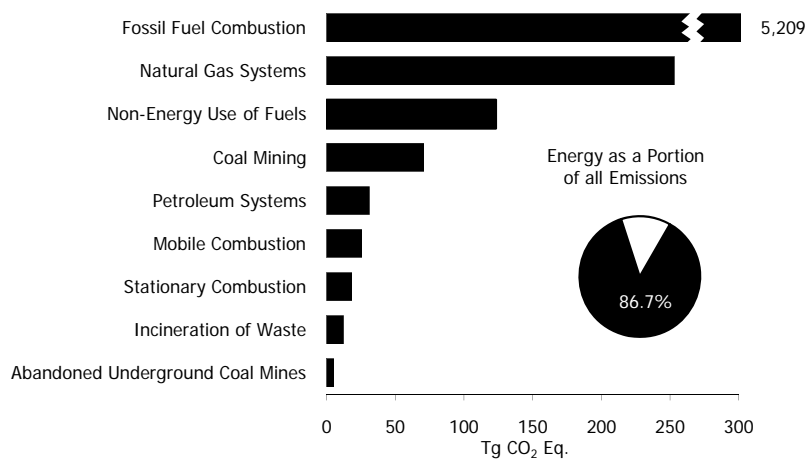


Figure 2-5: 2009 Energy Sector Greenhouse Gas Sources

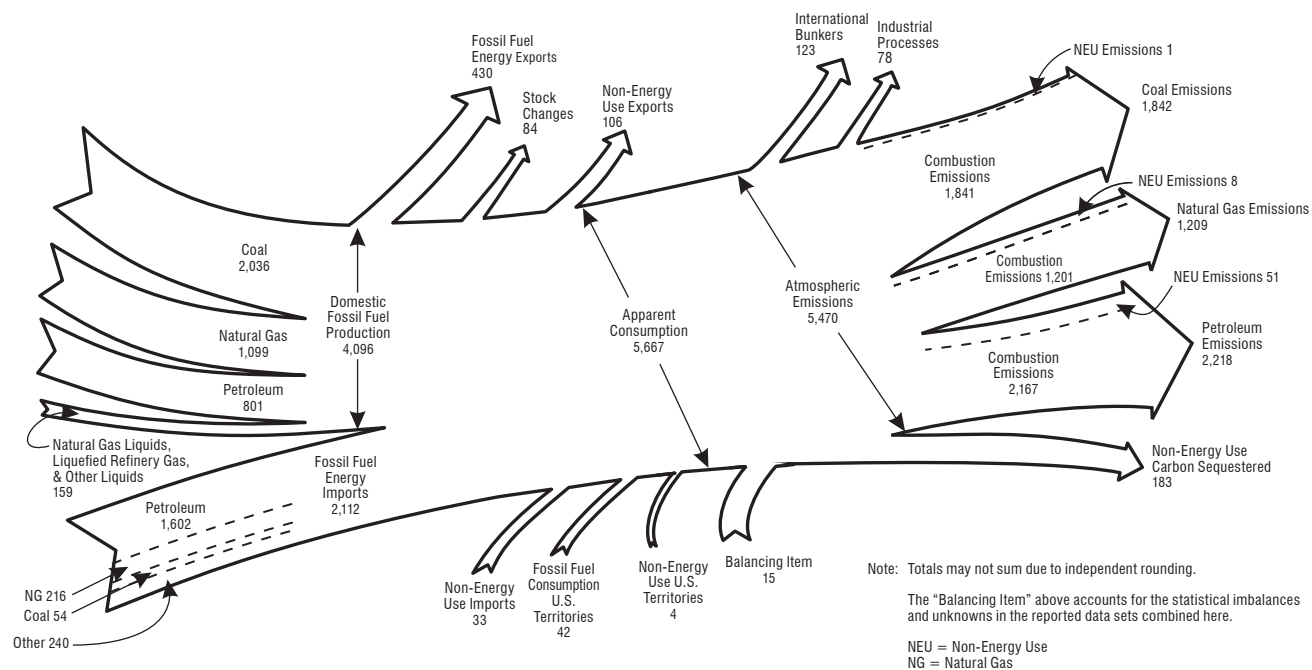


Figure 2-6 2009 U.S. Fossil Carbon Flows (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

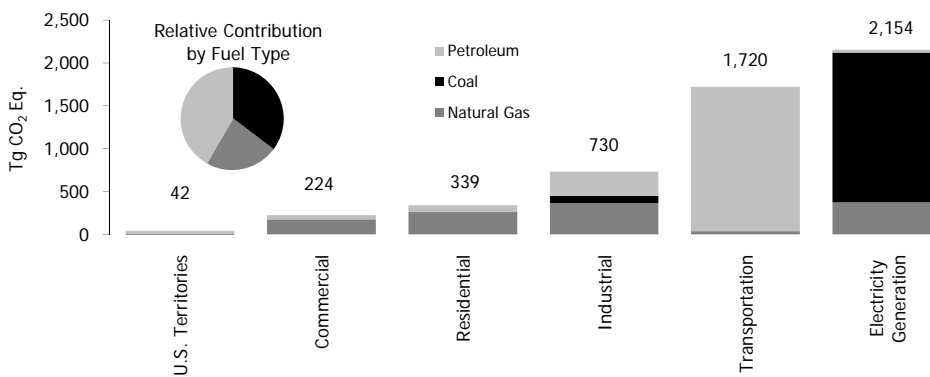


Figure 2-7: 2009 CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by Sector and Fuel Type
 Note: Electricity generation also includes emissions of less than 0.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. from geothermal-based electricity generation.

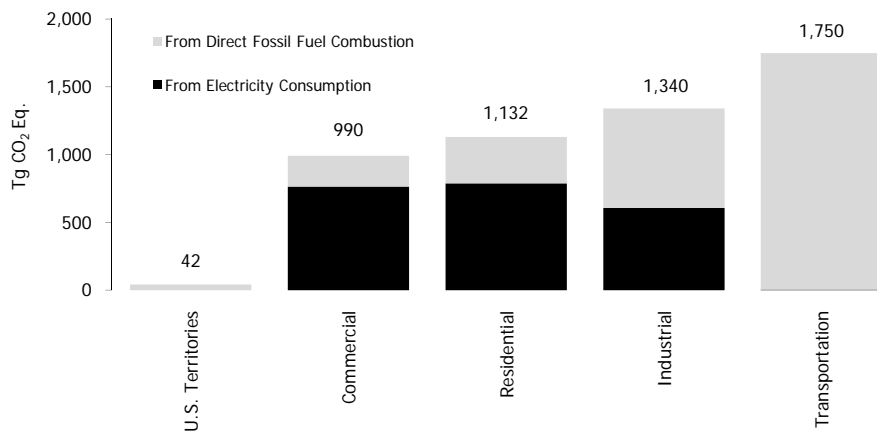


Figure 2-8: 2009 End-Use Sector Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion

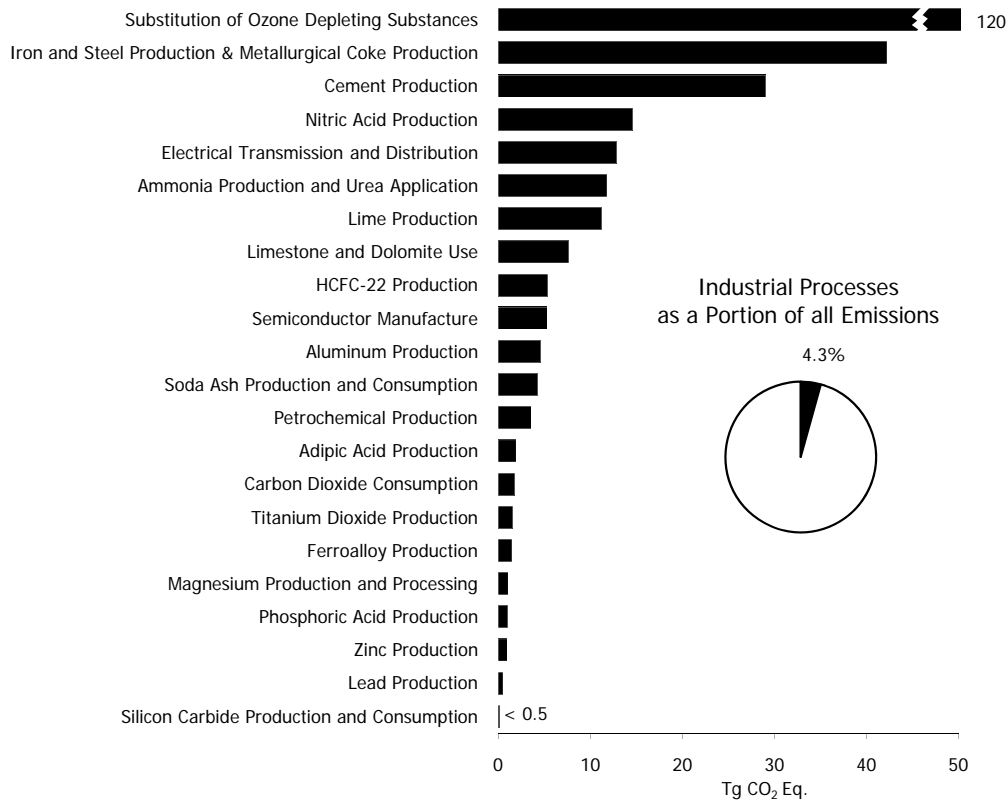


Figure 2-9: 2009 Industrial Processes Chapter Greenhouse Gas Sources

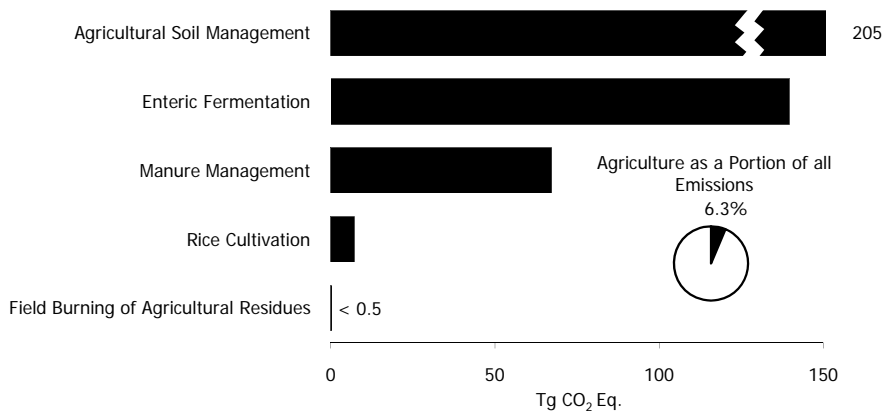


Figure 2-10: 2009 Agriculture Chapter Greenhouse Gas Sources

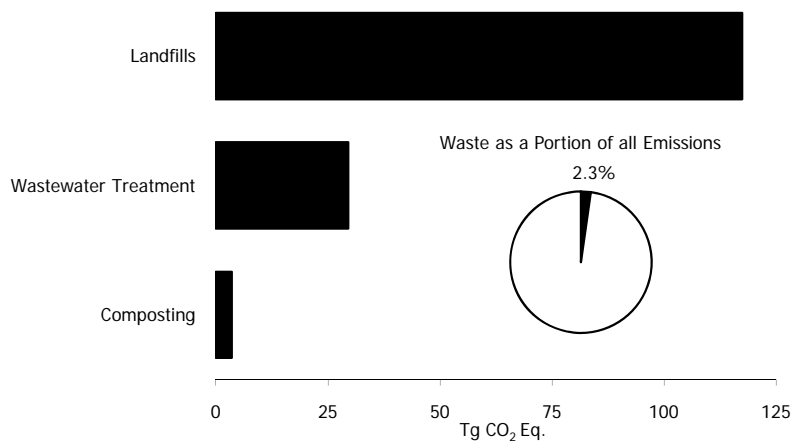


Figure 2-11: 2009 Waste Chapter Greenhouse Gas Sources

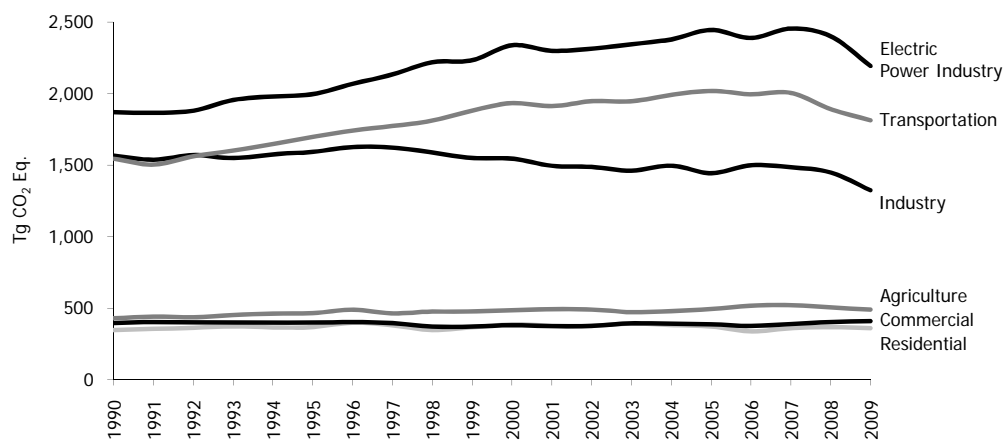


Figure 2-12: Emissions Allocated to Economic Sectors

Note: Does not include U.S. Territories.

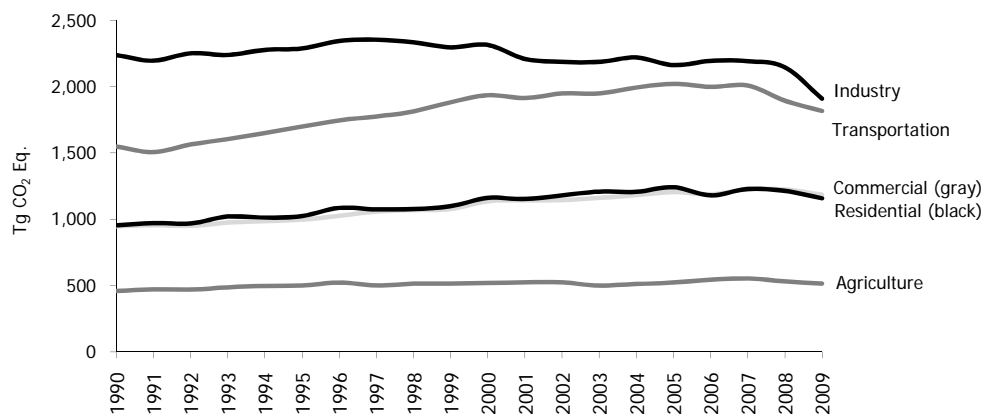


Figure 2-13: Emissions with Electricity Distributed to Economic Sectors

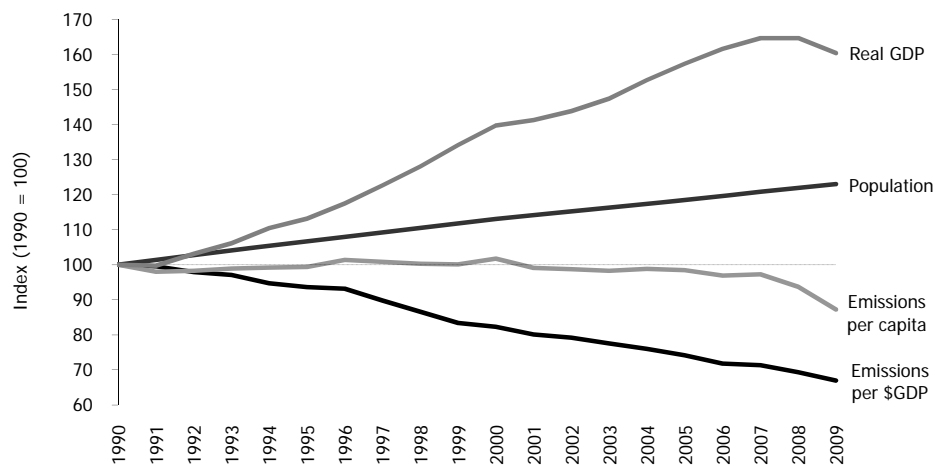


Figure 2-14: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Per Capita and Per Dollar of Gross Domestic Product

3. Energy

Energy-related activities were the primary sources of U.S. anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions, accounting for 86.7 percent of total greenhouse gas emissions on a carbon dioxide (CO₂) equivalent basis⁵² in 2009. This included 98, 49, and 13 percent of the nation's CO₂, methane (CH₄), and nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions, respectively. Energy-related CO₂ emissions alone constituted 81 percent of national emissions from all sources on a CO₂ equivalent basis, while the non-CO₂ emissions from energy-related activities represented a much smaller portion of total national emissions (5.6 percent collectively).

Emissions from fossil fuel combustion comprise the vast majority of energy-related emissions, with CO₂ being the primary gas emitted (see Figure 3-1). Globally, approximately 30,398 Tg of CO₂ were added to the atmosphere through the combustion of fossil fuels in 2009, of which the United States accounted for about 18 percent.⁵³ Due to their relative importance, fossil fuel combustion-related CO₂ emissions are considered separately, and in more detail than other energy-related emissions (see Figure 3-2). Fossil fuel combustion also emits CH₄ and N₂O, and mobile fossil fuel combustion was the second largest source of N₂O emissions in the United States.

Figure 3-1: 2009 Energy Chapter Greenhouse Gas Sources

Figure 3-2: 2009 U.S. Fossil Carbon Flows (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Energy-related activities other than fuel combustion, such as the production, transmission, storage, and distribution of fossil fuels, also emit greenhouse gases. These emissions consist primarily of fugitive CH₄ from natural gas systems, petroleum systems, and coal mining.

Table 3-1 summarizes emissions from the Energy sector in units of teragrams (or million metric tons) of CO₂ equivalents (Tg CO₂ Eq.), while unweighted gas emissions in gigagrams (Gg) are provided in Table 3-2. Overall, emissions due to energy-related activities were 5,751.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009, an increase of 9 percent since 1990.

Table 3-1: CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O Emissions from Energy (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO₂	4,903.2	5,781.3	5,939.4	5,842.5	5,938.2	5,752.3	5,377.3
Fossil Fuel Combustion	4,738.4	5,594.8	5,753.2	5,653.1	5,756.7	5,565.9	5,209.0
Electricity Generation	1,820.8	2,296.9	2,402.1	2,346.4	2,412.8	2,360.9	2,154.0
Transportation	1,485.9	1,809.5	1,896.6	1,878.1	1,894.0	1,789.9	1,719.7
Industrial	846.5	851.1	823.1	848.2	842.0	802.9	730.4
Residential	338.3	370.7	357.9	321.5	342.4	348.2	339.2
Commercial	219.0	230.8	223.5	208.6	219.4	224.2	224.0
U.S. Territories	27.9	35.9	50.0	50.3	46.1	39.8	41.7
Non-Energy Use of Fuels	118.6	144.9	143.4	145.6	137.2	141.0	123.4
Natural Gas Systems	37.6	29.9	29.9	30.8	31.1	32.8	32.2
Incineration of Waste	8.0	11.1	12.5	12.5	12.7	12.2	12.3
Petroleum Systems	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
<i>Biomass - Wood*</i>	<i>215.2</i>	<i>218.1</i>	<i>206.9</i>	<i>203.8</i>	<i>203.3</i>	<i>198.4</i>	<i>183.8</i>
<i>International Bunker Fuels*</i>	<i>111.8</i>	<i>98.5</i>	<i>109.7</i>	<i>128.4</i>	<i>127.6</i>	<i>133.7</i>	<i>123.1</i>
<i>Biomass - Ethanol*</i>	<i>4.2</i>	<i>9.4</i>	<i>23.0</i>	<i>31.0</i>	<i>38.9</i>	<i>54.8</i>	<i>61.2</i>
CH₄	327.4	318.6	291.3	319.2	307.3	323.6	336.8
Natural Gas Systems	189.8	209.3	190.4	217.7	205.2	211.8	221.2

⁵² Estimates are presented in units of teragrams of carbon dioxide equivalent (Tg CO₂ Eq.), which weight each gas by its global warming potential, or GWP, value. See section on global warming potentials in the Executive Summary.

⁵³ Global CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion were taken from Energy Information Administration *International Energy Statistics 2010* < <http://tonto.eia.doe.gov/cfapps/ipdbproject/IEDIndex3.cfm> > EIA (2010).

Coal Mining	84.1	60.4	56.9	58.2	57.9	67.1	71.0
Petroleum Systems	35.4	31.5	29.4	29.4	30.0	30.2	30.9
Stationary Combustion	7.4	6.6	6.6	6.2	6.5	6.5	6.2
Abandoned Underground							
Coal Mines	6.0	7.4	5.5	5.5	5.6	5.9	5.5
Mobile Combustion	4.7	3.4	2.5	2.3	2.2	2.0	2.0
Incineration of Waste	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>International Bunker Fuels*</i>	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
N₂O	57.2	68.1	52.1	48.5	45.2	40.7	37.0
Mobile Combustion	43.9	53.2	36.9	33.6	30.3	26.1	23.9
Stationary Combustion	12.8	14.6	14.7	14.4	14.6	14.2	12.8
Incineration of Waste	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
<i>International Bunker Fuels*</i>	1.1	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.1
Total	5,287.8	6,168.0	6,282.8	6,210.2	6,290.7	6,116.6	5,751.1

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

* These values are presented for informational purposes only, in line with IPCC methodological guidance and UNFCCC reporting obligations, and are not included in the specific energy sector contribution to the totals, and are already accounted for elsewhere.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-2: CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O Emissions from Energy (Gg)

Gas/Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO₂	4,903,171	5,781,303	5,939,434	5,842,464	5,938,203	5,752,327	5,377,271
Fossil Fuel Combustion	4,738,422	5,594,848	5,753,200	5,653,116	5,756,746	5,565,925	5,208,981
Non-Energy Use of							
Fuels	118,630	144,933	143,392	145,574	137,233	140,952	123,356
Natural Gas Systems	37,574	29,877	29,902	30,755	31,050	32,828	32,171
Incineration of Waste	7,989	11,112	12,450	12,531	12,700	12,169	12,300
Petroleum Systems	555	534	490	488	474	453	463
<i>Biomass - Wood*</i>	215,186	218,088	206,865	203,846	203,316	198,361	183,777
<i>International Bunker Fuels*</i>	111,828	98,482	109,750	128,384	127,618	133,704	123,127
<i>Biomass - Ethanol*</i>	4,229	9,352	22,956	31,002	38,946	54,770	61,231
CH₄	15,590	15,171	13,872	15,202	14,634	15,408	16,037
Natural Gas Systems	9,038	9,968	9,069	10,364	9,771	10,087	10,535
Coal Mining	4,003	2,877	2,710	2,774	2,756	3,196	3,382
Petroleum Systems	1,685	1,501	1,398	1,398	1,427	1,439	1,473
Stationary Combustion	354	315	312	293	308	310	293
Abandoned							
Underground Coal							
Mines	288	350	264	261	267	279	262
Mobile Combustion	223	160	119	112	105	97	93
Incineration of Waste	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>International Bunker Fuels*</i>	8	6	7	8	8	8	7
N₂O	185	220	168	156	146	131	120
Mobile Combustion	142	172	119	108	98	84	77
Stationary Combustion	41	47	47	47	47	46	41
Incineration of Waste	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
<i>International Bunker Fuels*</i>	3	3	3	4	4	4	4

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

* These values are presented for informational purposes only, in line with IPCC methodological guidance and UNFCCC reporting obligations, and are not included in the specific energy sector contribution to the totals, and are already accounted for elsewhere.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

3.1. Fossil Fuel Combustion (IPCC Source Category 1A)

Emissions from the combustion of fossil fuels for energy include the gases CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O. Given that CO₂ is the primary gas emitted from fossil fuel combustion and represents the largest share of U.S. total emissions, CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion are discussed at the beginning of this section. Following that is a discussion of emissions of all three gases from fossil fuel combustion presented by sectoral breakdowns. Methodologies for estimating CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion also differ from the estimation of CH₄ and N₂O emissions from stationary combustion and mobile combustion. Thus, three separate descriptions of methodologies, uncertainties, recalculations, and planned improvements are provided at the end of this section. Total CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O emissions from fossil fuel combustion are presented in Table 3-3 and Table 3-4.

Table 3-3: CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO ₂	4,738.4	5,594.8	5,753.2	5,653.1	5,756.7	5,565.9	5,209.0
CH ₄	12.1	10.0	9.1	8.5	8.7	8.5	8.1
N ₂ O	56.8	67.7	51.7	48.1	44.9	40.4	36.7
Total	4,807.3	5,627.6	5,813.9	5,709.7	5,810.3	5,614.8	5,253.8

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-4: CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion (Gg)

Gas	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO ₂	4,738,422	5,594,848	5,753,200	5,653,116	5,756,746	5,565,925	5,208,981
CH ₄	577	476	431	405	413	407	386
N ₂ O	183	219	167	155	145	130	118

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion

CO₂ is the primary gas emitted from fossil fuel combustion and represents the largest share of U.S. total greenhouse gas emissions. CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion are presented in Table 3-5. In 2009, CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion decreased by 6.4 percent relative to the previous year. This decrease represents the largest annual decrease in CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion for the twenty-year period.⁵⁴ The decrease in CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion was a result of multiple factors including: (1) a decrease in economic output resulting in a decrease in energy consumption across all sectors; (2) a decrease in the carbon intensity of fuels used to generate electricity due to fuel switching as the price of coal increased, and the price natural gas decreased significantly; and (3) an increase in non-fossil fuel consumption by approximately 2 percent. In 2009, CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion were 5,209.0 Tg CO₂ Eq., or almost 10 percent above emissions in 1990 (see Table 3-5).⁵⁵

Table 3-5: CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by Fuel Type and Sector (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Fuel/Sector	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Coal	1,718.4	2,065.5	2,112.3	2,076.5	2,106.0	2,072.5	1,841.0
Residential	3.0	1.1	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.6
Commercial	12.0	8.8	9.3	6.2	6.7	6.5	5.8
Industrial	155.3	127.3	115.3	112.6	107.0	102.6	83.4
Transportation	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
Electricity Generation	1,547.6	1,927.4	1,983.8	1,953.7	1,987.3	1,959.4	1,747.6
U.S. Territories	0.6	0.9	3.0	3.4	4.3	3.3	3.5
Natural Gas	1,000.6	1,217.4	1,159.0	1,141.3	1,218.0	1,226.0	1,200.9

⁵⁴ This decrease also represents the largest absolute and percentage decrease since the beginning of EIA's record of annual energy consumption data, beginning in 1949 (EIA 2010a).

⁵⁵ An additional discussion of fossil fuel emission trends is presented in the Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Chapter.

Residential	238.0	270.7	262.2	237.3	257.0	264.4	257.2
Commercial	142.1	172.5	162.9	153.8	164.0	170.2	167.9
Industrial	409.1	457.2	380.8	377.7	389.0	391.0	365.0
Transportation	36.0	35.6	33.1	33.1	35.3	36.8	36.3
Electricity Generation	175.3	280.8	318.8	338.0	371.3	361.9	373.1
U.S. Territories	NO	0.7	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.5
Petroleum	2,019.0	2,311.6	2,481.5	2,434.9	2,432.4	2,267.1	2,166.7
Residential	97.4	98.8	94.9	83.6	84.6	83.1	81.4
Commercial	64.9	49.6	51.3	48.5	48.7	47.4	50.3
Industrial	282.1	266.6	326.9	357.9	346.0	309.3	282.0
Transportation	1,449.9	1,773.9	1,863.5	1,845.0	1,858.7	1,753.1	1,683.4
Electricity Generation	97.5	88.4	99.2	54.4	53.9	39.2	32.9
U.S. Territories	27.2	34.2	45.7	45.5	40.4	35.0	36.7
Geothermal*	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Total	4,738.4	5,594.8	5,753.2	5,653.1	5,756.7	5,565.9	5,209.0

NE (Not estimated)

NO (Not occurring)

* Although not technically a fossil fuel, geothermal energy-related CO₂ emissions are included for reporting purposes.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Trends in CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion are influenced by many long-term and short-term factors. On a year-to-year basis, the overall demand for fossil fuels in the United States and other countries generally fluctuates in response to changes in general economic conditions, energy prices, weather, and the availability of non-fossil alternatives. For example, in a year with increased consumption of goods and services, low fuel prices, severe summer and winter weather conditions, nuclear plant closures, and lower precipitation feeding hydroelectric dams, there would likely be proportionally greater fossil fuel consumption than a year with poor economic performance, high fuel prices, mild temperatures, and increased output from nuclear and hydroelectric plants.

Longer-term changes in energy consumption patterns, however, tend to be more a function of aggregate societal trends that affect the scale of consumption (e.g., population, number of cars, size of houses, and number of houses), the efficiency with which energy is used in equipment (e.g., cars, power plants, steel mills, and light bulbs), and social planning and consumer behavior (e.g., walking, bicycling, or telecommuting to work instead of driving).

CO₂ emissions also depend on the source of energy and its carbon (C) intensity. The amount of C in fuels varies significantly by fuel type. For example, coal contains the highest amount of C per unit of useful energy. Petroleum has roughly 75 percent of the C per unit of energy as coal, and natural gas has only about 55 percent.⁵⁶ Table 3-6 shows annual changes in emissions during the last five years for coal, petroleum, and natural gas in selected sectors.

Table 3-6: Annual Change in CO₂ Emissions and Total 2009 Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion for Selected Fuels and Sectors (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Sector	Fuel Type	2005 to 2006		2006 to 2007		2007 to 2008		2008 to 2009		Total 2009
Electricity Generation	Coal	-30.1	-1.5%	33.6	1.7%	-27.9	-1.4%	-211.7	-10.8%	1,747.6
Electricity Generation	Natural Gas	19.2	6.0%	33.3	9.9%	-9.3	-2.5%	11.1	3.1%	373.1
Electricity Generation	Petroleum	-44.8	-45.2%	-0.5	-0.9%	-14.7	-27.2%	-6.3	-16.0%	32.9
Transportation ^a	Petroleum	-18.5	-1.0%	13.7	0.7%	-105.6	-5.7%	-69.7	-4.0%	1,683.4
Residential	Natural Gas	-24.9	-9.5%	19.7	8.3%	7.4	2.9%	-7.3	-2.8%	257.2
Commercial	Natural Gas	-9.1	-5.6%	10.2	6.6%	6.2	3.8%	-2.3	-1.3%	167.9
Industrial	Coal	-2.8	-2.4%	-5.6	-5.0%	-4.4	-4.1%	-19.2	-18.7%	83.4
Industrial	Natural Gas	-3.1	-0.8%	11.3	3.0%	2.0	0.5%	-26.0	-6.6%	365.0
All Sectors ^b	All Fuels ^b	-100.1	-1.7%	103.6	1.8%	-190.8	-3.3%	-356.9	-6.4%	5,209.0

^a Excludes emissions from International Bunker Fuels.

^b Includes fuels and sectors not shown in table.

⁵⁶ Based on national aggregate carbon content of all coal, natural gas, and petroleum fuels combusted in the United States.

In the United States, 83 percent of the energy consumed in 2009 was produced through the combustion of fossil fuels such as coal, natural gas, and petroleum (see Figure 3-3 and Figure 3-4). The remaining portion was supplied by nuclear electric power (9 percent) and by a variety of renewable energy sources⁵⁷ (8 percent), primarily hydroelectric power and biofuels (EIA 2010). Specifically, petroleum supplied the largest share of domestic energy demands, accounting for an average of 42 percent of total fossil fuel based energy consumption in 2009. Natural gas and coal followed in order of importance, accounting for approximately 32 and 27 percent of total consumption, respectively. Petroleum was consumed primarily in the transportation end-use sector and the vast majority of coal was used in electricity generation. Natural gas was broadly consumed in all end-use sectors except transportation (see Figure 3-5) (EIA 2010).

Figure 3-3: 2009 U.S. Energy Consumption by Energy Source

Figure 3-4: U.S. Energy Consumption (Quadrillion Btu)

Figure 3-5: 2009 CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by Sector and Fuel Type

Fossil fuels are generally combusted for the purpose of producing energy for useful heat and work. During the combustion process, the C stored in the fuels is oxidized and emitted as CO₂ and smaller amounts of other gases, including CH₄, CO, and NMVOCs.⁵⁸ These other C containing non-CO₂ gases are emitted as a by-product of incomplete fuel combustion, but are, for the most part, eventually oxidized to CO₂ in the atmosphere. Therefore, it is assumed that all of the C in fossil fuels used to produce energy is eventually converted to atmospheric CO₂.

[BEGIN BOX]

Box 3-1: Weather and Non-Fossil Energy Effects on CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion Trends

In 2009, weather conditions remained constant in the winter and slightly cooler in the summer compared to 2008, as heating degree days decreased slightly and cooling degree days decreased by 3.8 percent. Winter conditions were relatively constant in 2009 compared to 2008, and the winter was slightly warmer than normal, with heating degree days in the United States 0.7 percent below normal (see Figure 3-6). Summer conditions were slightly cooler in 2009 compared to 2008, and summer temperatures were slightly cooler than normal, with cooling degree days 1 percent below normal (see Figure 3-7) (EIA 2010).⁵⁹

Figure 3-6: Annual Deviations from Normal Heating Degree Days for the United States (1950–2009)

Figure 3-7: Annual Deviations from Normal Cooling Degree Days for the United States (1950–2009)

⁵⁷ Renewable energy, as defined in EIA's energy statistics, includes the following energy sources: hydroelectric power, geothermal energy, biofuels, solar energy, and wind energy

⁵⁸ See the sections entitled Stationary Combustion and Mobile Combustion in this chapter for information on non-CO₂ gas emissions from fossil fuel combustion.

⁵⁹ Degree days are relative measurements of outdoor air temperature. Heating degree days are deviations of the mean daily temperature below 65° F, while cooling degree days are deviations of the mean daily temperature above 65° F. Heating degree days have a considerably greater affect on energy demand and related emissions than do cooling degree days. Excludes Alaska and Hawaii. Normals are based on data from 1971 through 2000. The variation in these normals during this time period was ±10 percent and ±14 percent for heating and cooling degree days, respectively (99 percent confidence interval).

Although no new U.S. nuclear power plants have been constructed in recent years, the utilization (i.e., capacity factors⁶⁰) of existing plants in 2009 remained high at just over 90 percent. Electricity output by hydroelectric power plants increased in 2009 by approximately 6.8 percent. Electricity generated by nuclear plants in 2009 provided nearly 3 times as much of the energy consumed in the United States as hydroelectric plants (EIA 2010). Nuclear, hydroelectric, and wind power capacity factors since 1990 are shown in Figure 3-8.

Figure 3-8: Nuclear, Hydroelectric, and Wind Power Plant Capacity Factors in the United States (1990–2009)

[END BOX]

Fossil Fuel Combustion Emissions by Sector

In addition to the CO₂ emitted from fossil fuel combustion, CH₄ and N₂O are emitted from stationary and mobile combustion as well. Table 3-7 provides an overview of the CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O emissions from fossil fuel combustion by sector.

Table 3-7: CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by Sector (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

End-Use Sector	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Electricity Generation	1,829.5	2,307.5	2,413.2	2,357.2	2,423.8	2,371.7	2,163.7
CO ₂	1,820.8	2,296.9	2,402.1	2,346.4	2,412.8	2,360.9	2,154.0
CH ₄	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
N ₂ O	8.1	10.0	10.3	10.1	10.3	10.1	9.0
Transportation	1,534.6	1,866.0	1,936.0	1,914.1	1,926.5	1,818.1	1,745.5
CO ₂	1,485.9	1,809.5	1,896.6	1,878.1	1,894.0	1,789.9	1,719.7
CH ₄	4.7	3.4	2.5	2.3	2.2	2.0	2.0
N ₂ O	43.9	53.2	36.9	33.6	30.3	26.1	23.9
Industrial	851.2	855.9	827.5	852.8	846.5	807.0	734.1
CO ₂	846.5	851.1	823.1	848.2	842.0	802.9	730.4
CH ₄	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.2
N ₂ O	3.2	3.2	3.0	3.1	3.0	2.8	2.5
Residential	343.8	375.0	362.2	325.4	346.6	352.6	343.4
CO ₂	338.3	370.7	357.9	321.5	342.4	348.2	339.2
CH ₄	4.4	3.4	3.4	3.1	3.4	3.5	3.4
N ₂ O	1.1	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9
Commercial	220.2	232.1	224.8	209.7	220.6	225.4	225.2
CO ₂	219.0	230.8	223.5	208.6	219.4	224.2	224.0
CH ₄	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9
N ₂ O	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
U.S. Territories*	28.0	36.0	50.2	50.5	46.3	40.0	41.8
Total	4,807.3	5,672.6	5,813.9	5,709.7	5,810.3	5,614.8	5,253.8

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Emissions from fossil fuel combustion by electricity generation are allocated based on aggregate national electricity consumption by each end-use sector.

* U.S. Territories are not apportioned by sector, and emissions are total greenhouse gas emissions from all fuel combustion sources.

Other than CO₂, gases emitted from stationary combustion include the greenhouse gases CH₄ and N₂O and the

⁶⁰The capacity factor equals generation divided by net summer capacity. Summer capacity is defined as "The maximum output that generating equipment can supply to system load, as demonstrated by a multi-hour test, at the time of summer peak demand (period of June 1 through September 30)." Data for both the generation and net summer capacity are from EIA (2010b).

indirect greenhouse gases NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs.⁶¹ CH₄ and N₂O emissions from stationary combustion sources depend upon fuel characteristics, size and vintage, along with combustion technology, pollution control equipment, ambient environmental conditions, and operation and maintenance practices. N₂O emissions from stationary combustion are closely related to air-fuel mixes and combustion temperatures, as well as the characteristics of any pollution control equipment that is employed. CH₄ emissions from stationary combustion are primarily a function of the CH₄ content of the fuel and combustion efficiency.

Mobile combustion produces greenhouse gases other than CO₂, including CH₄, N₂O, and indirect greenhouse gases including NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs. As with stationary combustion, N₂O and NO_x emissions from mobile combustion are closely related to fuel characteristics, air-fuel mixes, combustion temperatures, and the use of pollution control equipment. N₂O from mobile sources, in particular, can be formed by the catalytic processes used to control NO_x, CO, and hydrocarbon emissions. Carbon monoxide emissions from mobile combustion are significantly affected by combustion efficiency and the presence of post-combustion emission controls. CO emissions are highest when air-fuel mixtures have less oxygen than required for complete combustion. These emissions occur especially in idle, low speed, and cold start conditions. CH₄ and NMVOC emissions from motor vehicles are a function of the CH₄ content of the motor fuel, the amount of hydrocarbons passing uncombusted through the engine, and any post-combustion control of hydrocarbon emissions (such as catalytic converters).

An alternative method of presenting combustion emissions is to allocate emissions associated with electricity generation to the sectors in which it is used. Four end-use sectors were defined: industrial, transportation, residential, and commercial. In the table below, electricity generation emissions have been distributed to each end-use sector based upon the sector's share of national electricity consumption, with the exception of CH₄ and N₂O from transportation.⁶² Emissions from U.S. territories are also calculated separately due to a lack of end-use-specific consumption data. This method of distributing emissions assumes that 564 combustion sources focus on the alternative method as presented in Table 3-8.

Table 3-8: CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by End-Use Sector (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

End-Use Sector	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Transportation	1,537.6	1,869.5	1,940.8	1,918.6	1,931.5	1,822.8	1,750.0
CO ₂	1,489.0	1,813.0	1,901.3	1,882.6	1,899.0	1,794.6	1,724.1
CH ₄	4.7	3.4	2.5	2.4	2.2	2.0	2.0
N ₂ O	44.0	53.2	37.0	33.6	30.3	26.2	23.9
Industrial	1,541.2	1,649.3	1,567.9	1,568.1	1,579.7	1,525.1	1,340.1
CO ₂	1,533.2	1,640.8	1,560.0	1,560.2	1,572.0	1,517.7	1,333.7
CH ₄	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.4
N ₂ O	6.3	6.7	6.2	6.2	6.1	5.8	5.0
Residential	939.7	1,140.9	1,222.9	1,160.1	1,206.7	1,190.4	1,131.6
CO ₂	931.4	1,133.1	1,214.7	1,152.4	1,198.5	1,182.2	1,123.8
CH ₄	4.6	3.6	3.7	3.3	3.6	3.7	3.6
N ₂ O	3.7	4.2	4.6	4.4	4.5	4.5	4.2
Commercial	760.8	976.8	1,032.2	1,012.4	1,046.0	1,036.5	990.3
CO ₂	757.0	972.1	1,027.2	1,007.6	1,041.1	1,031.6	985.7
CH ₄	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.1
N ₂ O	2.8	3.6	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.5
U.S. Territories*	28.0	36.0	50.2	50.5	46.3	40.0	41.8
Total	4,807.3	5,672.6	5,813.9	5,709.7	5,810.3	5,614.8	5,253.8

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Emissions from fossil fuel combustion by electricity generation are allocated based on aggregate national electricity consumption by each end-use sector.

* U.S. Territories are not apportioned by sector, and emissions are total greenhouse gas emissions from all fuel combustion sources.

⁶¹ Sulfur dioxide (SO₂) emissions from stationary combustion are addressed in Annex 6.3.

⁶² Separate calculations were performed for transportation-related CH₄ and N₂O. The methodology used to calculate these emissions are discussed in the mobile combustion section.

Stationary Combustion

The direct combustion of fuels by stationary sources in the electricity generation, industrial, commercial, and residential sectors represent the greatest share of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions. Table 3-9 presents CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion by stationary sources. The CO₂ emitted is closely linked to the type of fuel being combusted in each sector (see Methodology section for CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion). Other than CO₂, gases emitted from stationary combustion include the greenhouse gases CH₄ and N₂O. Table 3-10 and Table 3-11 present CH₄ and N₂O emissions from the combustion of fuels in stationary sources. CH₄ and N₂O emissions from stationary combustion sources depend upon fuel characteristics, size and vintage, along with combustion technology, pollution control equipment, ambient environmental conditions, and operation and maintenance practices. N₂O emissions from stationary combustion are closely related to air-fuel mixes and combustion temperatures, as well as the characteristics of any pollution control equipment that is employed. CH₄ emissions from stationary combustion are primarily a function of the CH₄ content of the fuel and combustion efficiency. Please refer to Table 3-7 for the corresponding presentation of all direct emission sources of fuel combustion.

Table 3-9: CO₂ Emissions from Stationary Fossil Fuel Combustion (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Sector/Fuel Type	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Electricity Generation	1,820.8	2,296.9	2,402.1	2,346.4	2,412.8	2,360.9	2,154.0
Coal	1,547.6	1,927.4	1,983.8	1,953.7	1,987.3	1,959.4	1,747.6
Natural Gas	175.3	280.8	318.8	338.0	371.3	361.9	373.1
Fuel Oil	97.5	88.4	99.2	54.4	53.9	39.2	32.9
Geothermal	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Industrial	846.5	851.1	823.1	848.2	842.0	802.9	730.4
Coal	155.3	127.3	115.3	112.6	107.0	102.6	83.4
Natural Gas	409.1	457.2	380.8	377.7	389.0	391.0	365.0
Fuel Oil	282.1	266.6	326.9	357.9	346.0	309.3	282.0
Commercial	219.0	230.8	223.5	208.6	219.4	224.2	224.0
Coal	12.0	8.8	9.3	6.2	6.7	6.5	5.8
Natural Gas	142.1	172.5	162.9	153.8	164.0	170.2	167.9
Fuel Oil	64.9	49.6	51.3	48.5	48.7	47.4	50.3
Residential	338.3	370.7	357.9	321.5	342.4	348.2	339.2
Coal	3.0	1.1	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.6
Natural Gas	238.0	270.7	262.2	237.3	257.0	264.4	257.2
Fuel Oil	97.4	98.8	94.9	83.6	84.6	83.1	81.4
U.S. Territories	27.9	35.9	50.0	50.3	46.1	39.8	41.7
Coal	0.6	0.9	3.0	3.4	4.3	3.3	3.5
Natural Gas	NO	0.7	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.5
Fuel Oil	27.2	34.2	45.7	45.5	40.4	35.0	36.7
Total	3,252.5	3,785.3	3,856.6	3,775.0	3,862.8	3,776.0	3,489.3

* U.S. Territories are not apportioned by sector, and emissions are from all fuel combustion sources (stationary and mobile) are presented in this table.

Table 3-10: CH₄ Emissions from Stationary Combustion (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Sector/Fuel Type	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Electricity Generation	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
Coal	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Fuel Oil	0.1	0.1	0.1	+	+	+	+
Natural Gas	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Wood	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Industrial	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.2
Coal	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2
Fuel Oil	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
Natural Gas	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Wood	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.7
Commercial	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9
Coal	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Fuel Oil	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Natural Gas	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Wood	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Residential	4.4	3.4	3.4	3.1	3.4	3.5	3.4
Coal	0.2	0.1	0.1	+	+	+	+
Fuel Oil	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Natural Gas	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5
Wood	3.5	2.5	2.6	2.3	2.6	2.7	2.6
U.S. Territories	+	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Coal	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Fuel Oil	+	+	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Natural Gas	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Wood	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	7.4	6.6	6.6	6.2	6.5	6.5	6.2

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-11: N₂O Emissions from Stationary Combustion (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Sector/Fuel Type	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Electricity Generation	8.1	10.0	10.3	10.1	10.2	10.1	9.0
Coal	7.6	9.4	9.7	9.5	9.7	9.6	8.5
Fuel Oil	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Natural Gas	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Wood	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Industrial	3.2	3.2	3.0	3.1	3.0	2.8	2.5
Coal	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4
Fuel Oil	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4
Natural Gas	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Wood	1.7	1.9	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.4
Commercial	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Coal	0.1	+	+	+	+	+	+
Fuel Oil	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Natural Gas	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Wood	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Residential	1.1	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9
Coal	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Fuel Oil	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Natural Gas	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Wood	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
U.S. Territories	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Coal	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

Fuel Oil	0.1		0.1		0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Natural Gas	+		+		+	+	+	+	+
Wood	+		+		+	+	+	+	+
Total	12.8		14.6		14.7	14.4	14.6	14.2	12.8

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Electricity Generation

The process of generating electricity is the single largest source of CO₂ emissions in the United States, representing 39 percent of total CO₂ emissions from all CO₂ emissions sources across the United States. CH₄ and N₂O accounted for a small portion of emissions from electricity generation, representing less than 0.1 percent and 0.4 percent, respectively.⁶³ Electricity generation also accounted for the largest share of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion, approximately 41 percent in 2009. CH₄ and N₂O from electricity generation represented 8 and 25 percent of emissions from CH₄ and N₂O emissions from fossil fuel combustion in 2009, respectively. Electricity was consumed primarily in the residential, commercial, and industrial end-use sectors for lighting, heating, electric motors, appliances, electronics, and air conditioning (see Figure 3-9).

Figure 3-9: Electricity Generation Retail Sales by End-Use Sector

The electric power industry includes all power producers, consisting of both regulated utilities and nonutilities (e.g. independent power producers, qualifying cogenerators, and other small power producers). For the underlying energy data used in this chapter, the Energy Information Administration (EIA) places electric power generation into three functional categories: the electric power sector, the commercial sector, and the industrial sector. The electric power sector consists of electric utilities and independent power producers whose primary business is the production of electricity,⁶⁴ while the other sectors consist of those producers that indicate their primary business is something other than the production of electricity.

The industrial, residential, and commercial end-use sectors, as presented in Table 3-8, were reliant on electricity for meeting energy needs. The residential and commercial end-use sectors were especially reliant on electricity consumption for lighting, heating, air conditioning, and operating appliances. Electricity sales to the residential and commercial end-use sectors in 2009 decreased approximately 1.2 percent and 1.0 percent, respectively. The trend in the commercial and residential sectors can largely be attributed to the decreased carbon intensity in the fuels used to generate electricity for these sectors. In addition, electricity consumption in both sectors decreased as a result of the less energy-intensive weather conditions compared to 2008. In 2009, the amount of electricity generated (in kWh) decreased by 4 percent from the previous year. This decline was due to the economic downturn, a decrease in the carbon intensity of fuels used to generate electricity due to fuel switching as the price of coal increased, and the price of natural gas decreased significantly, and an increase in non-fossil fuel sources used to generate electricity. As a result, CO₂ emissions from the electric power sector decreased by 8.8 percent as the consumption of coal and petroleum for electricity generation decreased by 10.8 percent and 16.6 percent, respectively, in 2009 and the consumption of natural gas for electricity generation, increased by 3.1 percent. The decrease in C intensity of the electricity supply (see Table 3-15) was the result of a decrease in the carbon intensity of fossil fuels consumed to generate electricity and an increase in renewable generation of 5 percent spurred by a 28 percent increase in wind-generated electricity.

⁶³ Since emissions estimates for U.S. territories cannot be disaggregated by gas in Table 3-7 and Table 3-8, the percentages for CH₄ and N₂O exclude U.S. territory estimates.

⁶⁴ Utilities primarily generate power for the U.S. electric grid for sale to retail customers. Nonutilities produce electricity for their own use, to sell to large consumers, or to sell on the wholesale electricity market (e.g., to utilities for distribution and resale to customers).

Industrial Sector

The industrial sector accounted for 14 percent of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion, 15 percent of CH₄ emissions from fossil fuel combustion, and 7 percent of N₂O emissions from fossil fuel combustion. CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O emissions resulted from the direct consumption of fossil fuels for steam and process heat production.

The industrial sector, per the underlying energy consumption data from EIA, includes activities such as manufacturing, construction, mining, and agriculture. The largest of these activities in terms of energy consumption is manufacturing, of which six industries—Petroleum Refineries, Chemicals, Paper, Primary Metals, Food, and Nonmetallic Mineral Products—represent the vast majority of the energy use (EIA 2010 and EIA 2009c).

In theory, emissions from the industrial sector should be highly correlated with economic growth and industrial output, but heating of industrial buildings and agricultural energy consumption are also affected by weather conditions.⁶⁵ In addition, structural changes within the U.S. economy that lead to shifts in industrial output away from energy-intensive manufacturing products to less energy-intensive products (e.g., from steel to computer equipment) also have a significant effect on industrial emissions.

From 2008 to 2009, total industrial production and manufacturing output decreased by 9.3 and 10.9 percent, respectively (FRB 2010). Over this period, output decreased across all production indices for Food, Petroleum Refineries, Chemicals, Paper, Primary Metals, and Nonmetallic Mineral Products (see Figure 3-10).

Figure 3-10: Industrial Production Indices (Index 2002=100)

Despite the growth in industrial output (41 percent) and the overall U.S. economy (60 percent) from 1990 to 2009, CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion in the industrial sector decreased by 13.7 percent over that time. A number of factors are believed to have caused this disparity between growth in industrial output and decrease in industrial emissions, including: (1) more rapid growth in output from less energy-intensive industries relative to traditional manufacturing industries, and (2) energy-intensive industries such as steel are employing new methods, such as electric arc furnaces, that are less carbon intensive than the older methods. In 2009, CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O emissions from fossil fuel combustion and electricity use within the industrial end-use sector totaled 1,340.1 Tg CO₂ Eq., or approximately 12.1 percent below 2008 emissions.

Residential and Commercial Sectors

The residential and commercial sectors accounted for 7 and 4 percent of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion, 42 and 11 percent of CH₄ emissions from fossil fuel combustion, and 2 and 1 percent of N₂O emissions from fossil fuel combustion, respectively. Emissions from these sectors were largely due to the direct consumption of natural gas and petroleum products, primarily for heating and cooking needs. Coal consumption was a minor component of energy use in both of these end-use sectors. In 2009, CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O emissions from fossil fuel combustion and electricity use within the residential and commercial end-use sectors were 1,131.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. and 990.3 Tg CO₂ Eq., respectively. Total CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O emissions from the residential and commercial sectors decreased by 4.9 and 4.5 percent from 2008 to 2009, respectively.

Emissions from the residential and commercial sectors have generally been increasing since 1990, and are often correlated with short-term fluctuations in energy consumption caused by weather conditions, rather than prevailing economic conditions. In the long-term, both sectors are also affected by population growth, regional migration trends, and changes in housing and building attributes (e.g., size and insulation).

Emissions from natural gas consumption represent about 76 and 75 percent of the direct fossil fuel CO₂ emissions from the residential and commercial sectors, respectively. In 2009, natural gas CO₂ emissions from the residential and commercial sectors decreased by 2.8 percent and 1.3 percent, respectively. The decrease in natural gas emissions in both sectors is a result of less energy-intensive weather conditions in the United States compared to

⁶⁵ Some commercial customers are large enough to obtain an industrial price for natural gas and/or electricity and are consequently grouped with the industrial end-use sector in U.S. energy statistics. These misclassifications of large commercial customers likely cause the industrial end-use sector to appear to be more sensitive to weather conditions.

2008.

U.S. Territories

Emissions from U.S. territories are based on the fuel consumption in American Samoa, Guam, Puerto Rico, U.S. Virgin Islands, Wake Island, and other U.S. Pacific Islands. As described in the Methodology section for CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion, this data is collected separately from the sectoral-level data available for the general calculations. As sectoral information is not available for U.S. Territories, CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O emissions are not presented for U.S. Territories in the tables above, though the emissions will include some transportation and mobile combustion sources.

Transportation Sector

This discussion of transportation emissions follows the alternative method of presenting combustion emissions by allocating emissions associated with electricity generation to the transportation end-use sector, as presented in Table 3-8. For direct emissions from transportation (i.e., not including emissions associated with the sector's electricity consumption), please see Table 3-7.

The transportation end-use sector accounted for 1,745.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009, which represented 33 percent of CO₂ emissions, 24 percent of CH₄ emissions, and 65 percent of N₂O emissions from fossil fuel combustion, respectively. Fuel purchased in the U.S. for international aircraft and marine travel accounted for an additional 123.1 Tg CO₂ in 2009; these emissions are recorded as international bunkers and are not included in U.S. totals according to UNFCCC reporting protocols. Among domestic transportation sources, light-duty vehicles (including passenger cars and light-duty trucks) represented 64 percent of CO₂ emissions, medium- and heavy-duty trucks 20 percent, commercial aircraft 6 percent, and other sources 9 percent. Light-duty truck CO₂ emissions increased by 60 percent (193.4 Tg) from 1990 to 2009, representing the largest percentage increase of any transportation mode. General aviation aircraft CO₂ emissions also increased by nearly 60 percent (5.7 Tg) from 1990 to 2009. CO₂ from the domestic operation of commercial aircraft decreased by 18 percent (24.0 Tg) from 1990 to 2009. Across all categories of aviation, CO₂ emissions decreased by 21.6 percent (38.7 Tg) between 1990 and 2009. This includes a 59 percent (20.3 Tg) decrease in emissions from domestic military operations. For further information on all greenhouse gas emissions from transportation sources, please refer to Annex 3.2. See Table 3-12 for a detailed breakdown of CO₂ emissions by mode and fuel type.

From 1990 to 2009, transportation emissions rose by 17 percent due, in large part, to increased demand for travel and the stagnation of fuel efficiency across the U.S. vehicle fleet. The number of vehicle miles traveled by light-duty motor vehicles (passenger cars and light-duty trucks) increased 39 percent from 1990 to 2009, as a result of a confluence of factors including population growth, economic growth, urban sprawl, and low fuel prices over much of this period.

From 2008 to 2009, CO₂ emissions from the transportation end-use sector declined 4 percent. The decrease in emissions can largely be attributed to decreased economic activity in 2009 and an associated decline in the demand for transportation. Modes such as medium- and heavy-duty trucks were significantly impacted by the decline in freight transport. Similarly, increased jet fuel prices were a factor in the 19 percent decrease in commercial aircraft emissions since 2007.

Almost all of the energy consumed for transportation was supplied by petroleum-based products, with more than half being related to gasoline consumption in automobiles and other highway vehicles. Other fuel uses, especially diesel fuel for freight trucks and jet fuel for aircraft, accounted for the remainder. The prim9seou T(e)69(t)3.ce 3.9(c)2.-1(a)]TJ

including motor gasoline, diesel fuel, jet fuel, and residual oil.⁶⁶ Transportation sources also produce CH₄ and N₂O; these emissions are included in Table 3-13 and Table 3-14 in the “Mobile Combustion” Section. Annex 3.2 presents total emissions from all transportation and mobile sources, including CO₂, N₂O, CH₄, and HFCs.

Carbon dioxide emissions from passenger cars and light-duty trucks totaled 1,111.7 Tg in 2009, an increase of 17 percent (161.3 Tg) from 1990. CO₂ emissions from passenger cars and light-duty trucks peaked at 1,184.3 Tg in 2004, and since then have declined about 6 percent. Over the 1990s through early this decade, growth in vehicle travel substantially outweighed improvements in vehicle fuel economy; however, the rate of Vehicle Miles Traveled (VMT) growth slowed considerably starting in 2005 (and declined rapidly in 2008) while average vehicle fuel economy increased. Among new vehicles sold annually, average fuel economy gradually declined from 1990 to 2004 (Figure 3-11), reflecting substantial growth in sales of light-duty trucks—in particular, growth in the market share of sport utility vehicles—relative to passenger cars (Figure 3-12). New vehicle fuel economy improved beginning in 2005, largely due to higher light-duty truck fuel economy standards, which have risen each year since 2005. The overall increase in fuel economy is also due to a slightly lower light-duty truck market share, which peaked in 2004 at 52 percent and declined to 40 percent in 2009.

Figure 3-11: Sales-Weighted Fuel Economy of New Passenger Cars and Light-Duty Trucks, 1990–2008

Figure 3-12: Sales of New Passenger Cars and Light-Duty Trucks, 1990–2008

Light-duty truck⁶⁷ CO₂ emissions increased by 60 percent (193.4 Tg) from 1990 to 2009, representing the largest percentage increase of any transportation mode. General aviation aircraft CO₂ emissions also increased by nearly 60 percent (5.7 Tg) from 1990 to 2009. CO₂ from the domestic operation of commercial aircraft decreased by 18 percent (24.0 Tg) from 1990 to 2009. Across all categories of aviation⁶⁸, CO₂ emissions decreased by 21.6 percent (38.7 Tg) between 1990 and 2009. This includes a 59 percent (20.3 Tg) decrease in emissions from domestic military operations. For further information on all greenhouse gas emissions from transportation sources, please refer to Annex 3.2.

Table 3-12: CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion in Transportation End-Use Sector (Tg CO₂ Eq.)^a

Fuel/Vehicle Type	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Gasoline	983.7	1,135.0	1,187.8	1,178.2	1,181.2	1,130.3	1,125.7
Passenger Cars	621.4	640.6	658.0	635.0	628.7	594.0	593.3
Light-Duty Trucks	309.1	446.4	478.7	491.5	500.1	486.5	485.9
Medium- and Heavy-Duty Trucks ^b	38.7	36.0	34.9	35.5	36.1	33.7	30.6
Buses	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3
Motorcycles	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.1
Recreational Boats	12.4	9.8	14.1	14.0	13.9	13.5	13.4
Distillate Fuel Oil (Diesel)	262.9	402.5	451.8	470.3	476.3	443.5	402.5
Passenger Cars	7.9	3.7	4.2	4.1	4.1	3.9	3.9
Light-Duty Trucks	11.5	20.1	25.8	26.8	27.3	26.9	26.7
Medium- and Heavy-Duty	190.5	309.6	360.6	370.1	376.1	356.0	321.8

⁶⁶ Biofuel estimates are presented for informational purposes only in the Energy chapter, in line with IPCC methodological guidance and UNFCCC reporting obligations. Net carbon fluxes from changes in biogenic carbon reservoirs in croplands are accounted for in the estimates for Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (see Chapter 7). More information and additional analyses on biofuels are available at EPA's "Renewable Fuels: Regulations & Standards" web page: <http://www.epa.gov/otaq/fuels/renewablefuels/regulations.htm>

⁶⁷ Includes “light-duty trucks” fueled by gasoline, diesel and LPG.

⁶⁸ Includes consumption of jet fuel and aviation gasoline. Does not include aircraft bunkers, which are not included in national emission totals, in line with IPCC methodological guidance and UNFCCC reporting obligations.

Trucks ^b							
Buses	8.0	10.2	10.6	10.8	10.8	10.3	9.3
Rail	35.5	42.1	45.6	47.8	46.6	43.2	36.2
Recreational Boats	2.0	2.7	3.1	3.2	3.3	0.9	3.5
Ships and Other Boats	7.5	14.1	8.1	7.5	8.2	2.2	1.2
<i>International Bunker Fuels^c</i>	<i>11.7</i>	<i>6.3</i>	<i>9.4</i>	<i>8.8</i>	<i>8.2</i>	<i>9.0</i>	<i>8.3</i>
Jet Fuel	176.2	199.8	194.2	169.5	168.7	155.1	138.8
Commercial Aircraft	135.4	169.2	161.2	137.1	138.1	122.2	111.4
Military Aircraft	34.4	21.1	18.1	16.4	16.1	16.3	14.1
General Aviation Aircraft	6.4	9.5	14.9	16.0	14.5	16.6	13.3
<i>International Bunker Fuels^c</i>	<i>46.4</i>	<i>58.8</i>	<i>56.7</i>	<i>74.6</i>	<i>73.8</i>	<i>75.5</i>	<i>69.4</i>
Aviation Gasoline	3.1	2.5	2.4	2.3	2.2	2.0	1.8
General Aviation Aircraft	3.1	2.5	2.4	2.3	2.2	2.0	1.8
Residual Fuel Oil	22.6	33.3	19.3	23.0	29.0	19.9	12.0
Ships and Other Boats ^d	22.6	33.3	19.3	23.0	29.0	19.9	12.0
<i>International Bunker Fuels^c</i>	<i>53.7</i>	<i>33.3</i>	<i>43.6</i>	<i>45.0</i>	<i>45.6</i>	<i>49.2</i>	<i>45.4</i>
Natural Gas	36.0	35.6	33.1	33.1	35.3	36.8	36.3
Passenger Cars	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Light-Duty Trucks	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Buses	+	0.4	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.1
Pipeline	36.0	35.2	32.2	32.3	34.3	35.7	35.2
LPG	1.4	0.7	1.7	1.7	1.4	2.4	2.5
Light-Duty Trucks	0.6	0.5	1.3	1.2	1.0	1.8	1.8
Medium- and Heavy-Duty Trucks ^b	0.8	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.7
Buses	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Electricity	3.0	3.4	4.7	4.5	5.0	4.7	4.4
Rail	3.0	3.4	4.7	4.5	5.0	4.7	4.4
Total	1,489.0	1,813.0	1,901.3	1,882.6	1,899.0	1,794.6	1,724.1
Total (Including Bunkers)^e	1,600.8	1,911.4	2,011.1	2,011.0	2,026.6	1,928.3	1,847.2

^a This table does not include emissions from non-transportation mobile sources, such as agricultural equipment and construction/mining equipment; it also does not include emissions associated with electricity consumption by pipelines or lubricants used in transportation.

^b Includes medium- and heavy-duty trucks over 8,500 lbs.

^c Official estimates exclude emissions from the combustion of both aviation and marine international bunker fuels; however, estimates including international bunker fuel-related emissions are presented for informational purposes.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Note: See section 3.10 of this chapter, in line with IPCC methodological guidance and UNFCCC reporting obligations, for more information on ethanol.

+ Less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

- Unreported or zero

Mobile Fossil Fuel Combustion CH₄ and N₂O Emissions

Mobile combustion includes emissions of CH₄ and N₂O from all transportation sources identified in the U.S. inventory with the exception of pipelines, which are stationary; mobile sources also include non-transportation sources such as construction/mining equipment, agricultural equipment, vehicles used off-road, and other sources (e.g., snowmobiles, lawnmowers, etc.). Annex 3.2 includes a summary of all emissions from both transportation and mobile sources. Table 3-13 and Table 3-14 provide CH₄ and N₂O emission estimates in Tg CO₂ Eq.⁶⁹

⁶⁹ See Annex 3.2 for a complete time series of emission estimates for 1990 through 2009.

Mobile combustion was responsible for a small portion of national CH₄ emissions (0.3 percent) but was the second largest source of U.S. N₂O emissions (9 percent). From 1990 to 2009, mobile source CH₄ emissions declined by 58 percent, to 2.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. (93 Gg), due largely to control technologies employed in on-road vehicles since the mid-1990s to reduce CO, NO_x, NMVOC, and CH₄ emissions. Mobile source emissions of N₂O decreased by 46 percent, to 23.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (77 Gg). Earlier generation control technologies initially resulted in higher N₂O emissions, causing a 26 percent increase in N₂O emissions from mobile sources between 1990 and 1998. Improvements in later-generation emission control technologies have reduced N₂O output, resulting in a 50 percent decrease in mobile source N₂O emissions from 1998 to 2009 (Figure 3-13). Overall, CH₄ and N₂O emissions were predominantly from gasoline-fueled passenger cars and light-duty trucks.

Figure 3-13: Mobile Source CH₄ and N₂O Emissions

Table 3-13: CH₄ Emissions from Mobile Combustion (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Fuel Type/Vehicle Type^a	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Gasoline On-Road	4.2	2.8	1.9	1.7	1.6	1.4	1.3
Passenger Cars	2.6	1.6	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.7
Light-Duty Trucks	1.4	1.1	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Medium- and Heavy-Duty Trucks and Buses	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Motorcycles	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Diesel On-Road	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Passenger Cars	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Light-Duty Trucks	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Medium- and Heavy-Duty Trucks and Buses	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Alternative Fuel On-Road	+	+	+	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Non-Road	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5
Ships and Boats	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Rail	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Aircraft	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Agricultural Equipment ^b	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Construction/Mining Equipment ^c	+	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other ^d	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	4.7	3.4	2.5	2.3	2.2	2.0	2.0

^a

Diesel On-Road	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Passenger Cars	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Light-Duty Trucks	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Medium- and Heavy-Duty Trucks and Buses	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Alternative Fuel On-Road	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Non-Road	3.6	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.3	3.8	3.6
Ships and Boats	0.6	0.9	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.5	0.4
Rail	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3
Aircraft	1.7	1.9	1.9	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.3
Agricultural Equipment ^b	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Construction/Mining Equipment ^c	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Other ^d	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Total	43.9	53.2	36.9	33.6	30.3	26.1	23.9

^a See Annex 3.2 for definitions of on-road vehicle types.

^b Includes equipment, such as tractors and combines, as well as fuel consumption from trucks that are used off-road in agriculture.

^c Includes equipment, such as cranes, dumpers, and excavators, as well as fuel consumption from trucks that are used off-road in construction.

^d "Other" includes snowmobiles and other recreational equipment, logging equipment, lawn and garden equipment, railroad equipment, airport equipment, commercial equipment, and industrial equipment, as well as fuel consumption from trucks that are used off-road for commercial/industrial purposes.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

+ Less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion

Methodology

The methodology used by the United States for estimating CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion is conceptually similar to the approach recommended by the IPCC for countries that intend to develop detailed, sectoral-based emission estimates in line with a Tier 2 method in the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006). A detailed description of the U.S. methodology is presented in Annex 2.1, and is characterized by the following steps:

1. *Determine total fuel consumption by fuel type and sector.* Total fossil fuel consumption for each year is estimated by aggregating consumption data by end-use sector (e.g., commercial, industrial, etc.), primary fuel type (e.g., coal, petroleum, gas), and secondary fuel category (e.g., motor gasoline, distillate fuel oil, etc.). Fuel consumption data for the United States were obtained directly from the Energy Information Administration (EIA) of the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE), primarily from the Monthly Energy Review and published supplemental tables on petroleum product detail (EIA 2011). The EIA does not include territories in its national energy statistics, so fuel consumption data for territories were collected separately from Jacobs (2010).⁷⁰

For consistency of reporting, the IPCC has recommended that countries report energy data using the International Energy Agency (IEA) reporting convention and/or IEA data. Data in the IEA format are presented "top down"—that is, energy consumption for fuel types and categories are estimated from energy production data (accounting for imports, exports, stock changes, and losses). The resulting quantities are referred to as "apparent consumption." The data collected in the United States by EIA on an annual basis and used in this inventory are predominantly from mid-stream or conversion energy consumers such as refiners and electric power generators. These annual surveys are supplemented with end-use energy consumption surveys, such as the Manufacturing Energy Consumption Survey, that are conducted on a periodic basis (every 4 years). These consumption data sets help inform the annual surveys to arrive at the

⁷⁰ Fuel consumption by U.S. territories (i.e., American Samoa, Guam, Puerto Rico, U.S. Virgin Islands, Wake Island, and other U.S. Pacific Islands) is included in this report and contributed emissions of 42 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009.

national total and sectoral breakdowns for that total.⁷¹

It is also important to note that U.S. fossil fuel energy statistics are generally presented using gross calorific values (GCV) (i.e., higher heating values). Fuel consumption activity data presented here have not been adjusted to correspond to international standards, which are to report energy statistics in terms of net calorific values (NCV) (i.e., lower heating values).⁷²

2. *Subtract uses accounted for in the Industrial Processes chapter.* Portions of the fuel consumption data for seven fuel categories—coking coal, distillate fuel, industrial other coal, petroleum coke, natural gas, residual fuel oil, and other oil—were reallocated to the industrial processes chapter, as they were consumed during non-energy related industrial activity. To make these adjustments, additional data were collected from AISI (2004 through 2010), Coffeyville (2010), U.S. Census Bureau (2010), EIA (2010c), USGS (1991 through 2010), USGS (1994 through 2010), USGS (1995, 1998, 2000 through 2002, 2007, and 2009), USGS (1991 through 2009a), and USGS (1991 through 2009b).⁷³
3. *Adjust for conversion of fuels and exports of CO₂.* Fossil fuel consumption estimates are adjusted downward to exclude fuels created from other fossil fuels and exports of CO₂.⁷⁴ Synthetic natural gas is created from industrial coal, and is currently included in EIA statistics for both coal and natural gas. Therefore, synthetic natural gas is subtracted from energy consumption statistics.⁷⁵ Since October 2000, the Dakota Gasification Plant has been exporting CO₂ to Canada by pipeline. Since this CO₂ is not emitted to the atmosphere in the United States, energy used to produce this CO₂ is subtracted from energy consumption statistics. To make these adjustments, additional data for ethanol were collected from EIA (2011) and data for synthetic natural gas were collected from EIA (2009b), and data for CO₂ exports were collected from the Dakota Gasification Company (2006), Fitzpatrick (2002), Erickson (2003), and EIA (2007b).
4. *Adjust Sectoral Allocation of Distillate Fuel Oil and Motor Gasoline.* EPA had conducted a separate bottom-up analysis of transportation fuel consumption based on the Federal Highway Administration's (FHWA) VMT that indicated that the amount of distillate and motor gasoline consumption allocated to the transportation sector in the EIA statistics should be adjusted. Therefore, for these estimates, the transportation sector's distillate fuel and motor gasoline consumption was adjusted upward to match the value obtained from the bottom-up analysis based on VMT. As the total distillate and motor gasoline consumption estimate from EIA are considered to be accurate at the national level, the distillate consumption totals for the residential, commercial, and industrial sectors were adjusted downward proportionately. The data sources used in the bottom-up analysis of transportation fuel consumption include AAR (2009 through 2010), Benson (2002 through 2004), DOE (1993 through 2010), EIA (2009a), EIA (1991 through 2010), EPA (2009), and FHWA (1996 through 2010).⁷⁶

⁷¹ See IPCC Reference Approach for estimating CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion in Annex 4 for a comparison of U.S. estimates using top-down and bottom-up approaches.

⁷² A crude convention to convert between gross and net calorific values is to multiply the heat content of solid and liquid fossil fuels by 0.95 and gaseous fuels by 0.9 to account for the water content of the fuels. Biomass-based fuels in U.S. energy statistics, however, are generally presented using net calorific values.

⁷³ See sections on Iron and Steel Production and Metallurgical Coke Production, Ammonia Production and Urea Consumption, Petrochemical Production, Titanium Dioxide Production, Ferroalloy Production, Aluminum Production, and Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption in the Industrial Processes chapter.

⁷⁴ Energy statistics from EIA(2010c) are already adjusted downward to account for ethanol added to motor gasoline, and biogas in natural gas.

⁷⁵ These adjustments are explained in greater detail in Annex 2.1.

⁷⁶ FHWA data on vehicle miles traveled from the VM-1 table were not available for 2009 due to a delay caused by changes in data collection procedures. Based on data from FHWA's Traffic Volume Trends Program, the overall increase in VMT between 2008 and 2009 was estimated to be 0.2%. Total VMT was distributed among vehicle classes based on trends in fuel consumption by fuel type between 2008 and 2009, as described below.

Fuel use by vehicle class (also in the VM-1 table) was not available from FHWA for 2009, but changes in overall diesel and gasoline consumption were released in Table MF21. Fuel use in vehicle classes that were predominantly gasoline was estimated to grow by the rate of growth for gasoline between 2008 and 2009. Fuel use in vehicle classes that were predominantly diesel

5. *Adjust for fuels consumed for non-energy uses.* U.S. aggregate energy statistics include consumption of fossil fuels for non-energy purposes. These are fossil fuels that are manufactured into plastics, asphalt, lubricants, or other products. Depending on the end-use, this can result in storage of some or all of the C contained in the fuel for a period of time. As the emission pathways of C used for non-energy purposes are vastly different than fuel combustion (since the C in these fuels ends up in products instead of being combusted), these emissions are estimated separately in the Carbon Emitted and Stored in Products from Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels section in this chapter. Therefore, the amount of fuels used for non-energy purposes was subtracted from total fuel consumption. Data on non-fuel consumption was provided by EIA (2011).
6. *Subtract consumption of international bunker fuels.* According to the UNFCCC reporting guidelines emissions from international transport activities, or bunker fuels, should not be included in national totals. U.S. energy consumption statistics include these bunker fuels (e.g., distillate fuel oil, residual fuel oil, and jet fuel) as part of consumption by the transportation end-use sector, however, so emissions from international transport activities were calculated separately following the same procedures used for emissions from consumption of all fossil fuels (i.e., estimation of consumption, and determination of C content).⁷⁷ The Office of the Under Secretary of Defense (Installations and Environment) and the Defense Energy Support Center (Defense Logistics Agency) of the U.S. Department of Defense (DoD) (DESC 2011) supplied data on military jet fuel and marine fuel use. Commercial jet fuel use was obtained from FAA (2006 and 2009); residual and distillate fuel use for civilian marine bunkers was obtained from DOC (1991 through 2010) for 1990 through 2001, 2007 and 2008, and DHS (2008) for 2003 through 2006. Consumption of these fuels was subtracted from the corresponding fuels in the transportation end-use sector. Estimates of international bunker fuel emissions for the United States are discussed in detail later in the International Bunker Fuels section of this chapter.
7. *Determine the total C content of fuels consumed.* Total C was estimated by multiplying the amount of fuel consumed by the amount of C in each fuel. This total C estimate defines the maximum amount of C that could potentially be released to the atmosphere if all of the C in each fuel was converted to CO₂. The C content coefficients used by the United States were obtained from EIA's Emissions of Greenhouse Gases in the United States 2008 (EIA 2009a), and an EPA analysis of C content coefficients used in the mandatory reporting rule (EPA 2010a). A discussion of the methodology used to develop the C content coefficients are presented in Annexes 2.1 and 2.2.
8. *Estimate CO₂ Emissions.* Total CO₂ emissions are the product of the adjusted energy consumption (from the previous methodology steps 1 through 6), the C content of the fuels consumed, and the fraction of C that is oxidized. The fraction oxidized was assumed to be 100 percent for petroleum, coal, and natural gas based on guidance in IPCC (2006) (see Annex 2.1).
9. *Allocate transportation emissions by vehicle type.* This report provides a more detailed accounting of emissions from transportation because it is such a large consumer of fossil fuels in the United States. For fuel types other than jet fuel, fuel consumption data by vehicle type and transportation mode were used to allocate emissions by fuel type calculated for the transportation end-use sector.
 - For on-road vehicles, annual estimates of combined motor gasoline and diesel fuel consumption by vehicle category were obtained from FHWA (1996 through 2010); for each vehicle category, the percent gasoline, diesel, and other (e.g., CNG, LPG) fuel consumption are estimated using data from DOE (1993 through 2010). Fuel use by vehicle class (found in the VM-1 table) was not available from FHWA for 2009, but changes in overall diesel and gasoline consumption were released in Table MF21. Fuel use in vehicle classes that were predominantly gasoline was estimated to grow by the rate of growth for gasoline between 2008 and 2009. Fuel use in vehicle classes that were predominantly diesel were estimated to fall by the same rate that diesel fuel consumption fell overall in 2009.
 - For non-road vehicles, activity data were obtained from AAR (2009 through 2010), APTA (2007 through 2010), BEA (1991 through 2009), Benson (2002 through 2004), DOE (1993 through 2010),

was estimated to fall by the same rate that diesel fuel consumption fell overall in 2009. VMT was then distributed to vehicle classes based on these fuel consumption estimates, assuming no relative change in MPG between vehicle classes.

⁷⁷ See International Bunker Fuels section in this chapter for a more detailed discussion.

DESC (2011), DOC (1991 through 2010), DOT (1991 through 2010), EIA (2009a), EIA (2009d), EIA (2007a), EIA (2002), EIA (1991 through 2011), EPA (2010b), FAA (2008), and Gaffney (2007).

- For jet fuel used by aircraft, CO₂ emissions were calculated directly based on reported consumption of fuel as reported by EIA, and allocated to commercial aircraft using flight-specific fuel consumption data from the Federal Aviation Administration's (FAA) Aviation Environmental Design Tool (AEDT) (FAA 2011). ⁷⁸ Allocation to domestic general aviation was made using FAA Aerospace Forecast data, and allocation to domestic military uses was made using DoD data (see Annex 3.7).

Heat contents and densities were obtained from EIA (2010) and USAF (1998). ⁷⁹

[BEGIN BOX]

Box 3-2: Carbon Intensity of U.S. Energy Consumption

Fossil fuels are the dominant source of energy in the United States, and CO₂ is the dominant greenhouse gas emitted as a product from their combustion. Energy-related CO₂ emissions are impacted by not only lower levels of energy consumption but also by lowering the C intensity of the energy sources employed (e.g., fuel switching from coal to natural gas). The amount of C emitted from the combustion of fossil fuels is dependent upon the C content of the fuel and the fraction of that C that is oxidized. Fossil fuels vary in their average C content, ranging from about 53 Tg CO₂ Eq./Qbtu for natural gas to upwards of 95 Tg CO₂ Eq./Qbtu for coal and petroleum coke.⁸⁰ In general, the C content per unit of energy of fossil fuels is the highest for coal products, followed by petroleum, and then natural gas. The overall C intensity of the U.S. economy is thus dependent upon the quantity and combination of fuels and other energy sources employed to meet demand.

Table 3-15 provides a time series of the C intensity for each sector of the U.S. economy. The time series incorporates only the energy consumed from the direct combustion of fossil fuels in each sector. For example, the C intensity for the residential sector does not include the energy from or emissions related to the consumption of electricity for lighting. Looking only at this direct consumption of fossil fuels, the residential sector exhibited the lowest C intensity, which is related to the large percentage of its energy derived from natural gas for heating. The C intensity of the commercial sector has predominantly declined since 1990 as commercial businesses shift away from petroleum to natural gas. The industrial sector was more dependent on petroleum and coal than either the residential or commercial sectors, and thus had higher C intensities over this period. The C intensity of the transportation sector was closely related to the C content of petroleum products (e.g., motor gasoline and jet fuel, both around 70 Tg CO₂ Eq./EJ), which were the primary sources of energy. Lastly, the electricity generation sector had the highest C intensity due to its heavy reliance on coal for generating electricity.

Table 3-15: Carbon Intensity from Direct Fossil Fuel Combustion by Sector (Tg CO₂ Eq./Qbtu)

Sector	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Residential ^a	57.4	56.6	56.6	56.5	56.3	56.1	56.0
Commercial ^a	59.2	57.2	57.5	57.2	57.1	56.8	56.9
Industrial ^a	64.3	62.8	64.3	64.5	64.0	63.6	63.2
Transportation ^a	71.1	71.3	71.4	71.6	71.9	71.6	71.5

⁷⁸ Data for inventory years 2000 through 2005 were developed using the FAA's System for assessing Aviation's Global Emissions (SAGE) model. That tool has been incorporated into the Aviation Environmental Design Tool (AEDT), which calculates noise in addition to aircraft fuel burn and emissions for all commercial flights globally in a given year. Data for inventory years 2006-2009 were developed using AEDT. The AEDT model dynamically models aircraft performance in space and time to produce fuel burn, emissions and noise. Full flight gate-to-gate analyses are possible for study sizes ranging from a single flight at an airport to scenarios at the regional, national, and global levels. AEDT is currently used by the U.S. government to consider the interdependencies between aircraft-related fuel burn, noise and emissions.

⁷⁹ For a more detailed description of the data sources used for the analysis of the transportation end use sector see the Mobile Combustion (excluding CO₂) and International Bunker Fuels sections of the Energy chapter, Annex 3.2, and Annex 3.7.

⁸⁰ One exajoule (EJ) is equal to 10¹⁸ joules or 0.9478 Qbtu.

Electricity Generation ^b	87.3	86.2	85.8	85.4	84.7	84.9	83.7
U.S. Territories ^c	73.0	72.5	73.4	73.5	73.8	73.3	73.1
All Sectors ^c	73.0	73.0	73.5	73.5	73.3	73.1	72.4

^a Does not include electricity or renewable energy consumption.

^b Does not include electricity produced using nuclear or renewable energy.

^c Does not include nuclear or renewable energy consumption.

Note: Excludes non-energy fuel use emissions and consumption.

Over the twenty-year period of 1990 through 2009, however, the C intensity of U.S. energy consumption has been fairly constant, as the proportion of fossil fuels used by the individual sectors has not changed significantly. Per capita energy consumption fluctuated little from 1990 to 2007, but in 2009 was approximately 9 percent below levels in 1990 (see Figure 3-14). Due to a general shift from a manufacturing-based economy to a service-based economy, as well as overall increases in efficiency, energy consumption and energy-related CO₂ emissions per dollar of gross domestic product (GDP) have both declined since 1990 (BEA 2010).

Figure 3-14: U.S. Energy Consumption and Energy-Related CO₂ Emissions Per Capita and Per Dollar GDP

C intensity estimates were developed using nuclear and renewable energy data from EIA (2010), EPA (2010a), and fossil fuel consumption data as discussed above and presented in Annex 2.1.

[END BOX]

Uncertainty and Time Series Consistency

For estimates of CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion, the amount of CO₂ emitted is directly related to the amount of fuel consumed, the fraction of the fuel that is oxidized, and the carbon content of the fuel. Therefore, a careful accounting of fossil fuel consumption by fuel type, average carbon contents of fossil fuels consumed, and production of fossil fuel-based products with long-term carbon storage should yield an accurate estimate of CO₂ emissions.

Nevertheless, there are uncertainties in the consumption data, carbon content of fuels and products, and carbon oxidation efficiencies. For example, given the same primary fuel type (e.g., coal, petroleum, or natural gas), the amount of carbon contained in the fuel per unit of useful energy can vary. For the United States, however, the impact of these uncertainties on overall CO₂ emission estimates is believed to be relatively small. See, for example, Marland and Pippin (1990).

Although statistics of total fossil fuel and other energy consumption are relatively accurate, the allocation of this consumption to individual end-use sectors (i.e., residential, commercial, industrial, and transportation) is less certain. For example, for some fuels the sectoral allocations are based on price rates (i.e., tariffs), but a commercial establishment may be able to negotiate an industrial rate or a small industrial establishment may end up paying an industrial rate, leading to a misallocation of emissions. Also, the deregulation of the natural gas industry and the more recent deregulation of the electric power industry have likely led to some minor problems in collecting accurate energy statistics as firms in these industries have undergone significant restructuring.

To calculate the total CO₂ emission estimate from energy-related fossil fuel combustion, the amount of fuel used in these non-energy production processes were subtracted from the total fossil fuel consumption for 2009. The amount of CO₂ emissions resulting from non-energy related fossil fuel use has been calculated separately and reported in the Carbon Emitted from Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels section of this report. These factors all contribute to the uncertainty in the CO₂ estimates. Detailed discussions on the uncertainties associated with C emitted from Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels can be found within that section of this chapter.

Various sources of uncertainty surround the estimation of emissions from international bunker fuels, which are subtracted from the U.S. totals (see the detailed discussions on these uncertainties provided in the International Bunker Fuels section of this chapter). Another source of uncertainty is fuel consumption by U.S. territories. The

United States does not collect energy statistics for its territories at the same level of detail as for the fifty states and the District of Columbia. Therefore, estimating both emissions and bunker fuel consumption by these territories is difficult.

Uncertainties in the emission estimates presented above also result from the data used to allocate CO₂ emissions from the transportation end-use sector to individual vehicle types and transport modes. In many cases, bottom-up estimates of fuel consumption by vehicle type do not match aggregate fuel-type estimates from EIA. Further research is planned to improve the allocation into detailed transportation end-use sector emissions.

The uncertainty analysis was performed by primary fuel type for each end-use sector, using the IPCC-recommended Tier 2 uncertainty estimation methodology, Monte Carlo Simulation technique, with @RISK software. For this uncertainty estimation, the inventory estimation model for CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion was integrated with the relevant variables from the inventory estimation model for International Bunker Fuels, to realistically characterize the interaction (or endogenous correlation) between the variables of these two models. About 120 input variables were modeled for CO₂ from energy-related Fossil Fuel Combustion (including about 10 for non-energy fuel consumption and about 20 for International Bunker Fuels).

In developing the uncertainty estimation model, uniform distributions were assumed for all activity-related input variables and emission factors, based on the SAIC/EIA (2001) report.⁸¹ Triangular distributions were assigned for the oxidation factors (or combustion efficiencies). The uncertainty ranges were assigned to the input variables based on the data reported in SAIC/EIA (2001) and on conversations with various agency personnel.⁸²

The uncertainty ranges for the activity-related input variables were typically asymmetric around their inventory estimates; the uncertainty ranges for the emissions factors were symmetric. Bias (or systematic uncertainties) associated with these variables accounted for much of the uncertainties associated with these variables (SAIC/EIA 2001).⁸³ For purposes of this uncertainty analysis, each input variable was simulated 10,000 times through Monte Carlo Sampling.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 3-16. Fossil fuel combustion CO₂ emissions in 2009 were estimated to be between 5,149.0 and 5,522.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 1 percent below to 6 percent above the 2009 emission estimate of 5,209.0 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 3-16: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Energy-related Fossil Fuel Combustion by Fuel Type and Sector (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Fuel/Sector	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
		(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Coal^b	1,841.0	1,779.3	2,015.6	-3%	+9%
Residential	0.6	0.6	0.7	-6%	+15%
Commercial	5.8	5.5	6.7	-5%	+15%
Industrial	83.4	80.5	97.5	-3%	+17%
Transportation	NE	NE	NE	NA	NA
Electricity Generation	1,747.6	1,680.4	1,915.8	-4%	+10%
U.S. Territories	3.5	3.1	4.2	-12%	+19%

⁸¹ SAIC/EIA (2001) characterizes the underlying probability density function for the input variables as a combination of uniform and normal distributions (the former to represent the bias component and the latter to represent the random component). However, for purposes of the current uncertainty analysis, it was determined that uniform distribution was more appropriate to characterize the probability density function underlying each of these variables.

⁸² In the SAIC/EIA (2001) report, the quantitative uncertainty estimates were developed for each of the three major fossil fuels used within each end-use sector; the variations within the sub-fuel types within each end-use sector were not modeled. However, for purposes of assigning uncertainty estimates to the sub-fuel type categories within each end-use sector in the current uncertainty analysis, SAIC/EIA (2001)-reported uncertainty estimates were extrapolated.

⁸³ Although, in general, random uncertainties are the main focus of statistical uncertainty analysis, when the uncertainty estimates are elicited from experts, their estimates include both random and systematic uncertainties. Hence, both these types of uncertainties are represented in this uncertainty analysis.

Natural Gas^b	1,200.9	1,209.4	1,276.6	+1%	+6%
Residential	257.2	250.0	275.2	-3%	+7%
Commercial	167.9	163.2	179.7	-3%	+7%
Industrial	365.0	374.9	412.7	+3%	+13%
Transportation	36.3	35.2	38.8	-3%	+7%
Electricity Generation	373.1	362.3	392.0	-3%	+5%
U.S. Territories	1.5	1.3	1.7	-12%	+17%
Petroleum^b	2,166.7	2,067.2	2,323.5	-5%	+7%
Residential	81.4	76.9	85.7	-6%	+5%
Commercial	50.3	47.9	52.4	-5%	+4%
Industrial	282.0	231.2	330.4	-18%	+17%
Transportation	1,683.4	1,598.6	1,826.8	-5%	+9%
Electric Utilities	32.9	31.5	35.4	-4%	+7%
U.S. Territories	36.7	33.8	40.9	-8%	+11%
Total (excluding Geothermal)^b	5,208.6	5,148.76	5,522.0	-1%	+6%
Geothermal	0.4	NE	NE	NE	NE
Total (including Geothermal)^{b,c}	5,209.0	5,149.0	5,522.4	-1%	+6%

NA (Not Applicable)

NE (Not Estimated)

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

^b The low and high estimates for total emissions were calculated separately through simulations and, hence, the low and high emission estimates for the sub-source categories do not sum to total emissions.

^c Geothermal emissions added for reporting purposes, but an uncertainty analysis was not performed for CO₂ emissions from geothermal production.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A source-specific QA/QC plan for CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion was developed and implemented. This effort included a Tier 1 analysis, as well as portions of a Tier 2 analysis. The Tier 2 procedures that were implemented involved checks specifically focusing on the activity data and methodology used for estimating CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion in the United States. Emission totals for the different sectors and fuels were compared and trends were investigated to determine whether any corrective actions were needed. Minor corrective actions were taken.

Recalculations Discussion

The Energy Information Administration (EIA 2011) updated energy consumption statistics across the time series. These revisions primarily impacted the emission estimates for 2007 and 2008. In addition, the coal emissions for U.S. Territories decreased from 2001 to 2008 due to the closure of a coal power plant in the U.S. Virgin Islands. Overall, these changes resulted in an average annual increase of 0.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (less than 0.1 percent) in CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion for the period 1990 through 2008.

Planned Improvements

To reduce uncertainty of CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion estimates, efforts will be taken to work with EIA and other agencies to improve the quality of the U.S. territories data. This improvement is not all-inclusive, and is part of an ongoing analysis and efforts to continually improve the CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion estimates. In addition, further expert elicitation may be conducted to better quantify the total uncertainty associated with emissions from this source.

Beginning in 2010, those facilities that emit over 25,000 tons of greenhouse gases (CO₂ Eq.) from stationary combustion across all sectors of the economy are required to calculate and report their greenhouse gas emissions to

EPA through its Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program. These data will be used in future inventories to improve the emission calculations through the use of these collected higher tier methodological data.

CH₄ and N₂O from Stationary Combustion

Methodology

CH₄ and N₂O emissions from stationary combustion were estimated by multiplying fossil fuel and wood consumption data by emission factors (by sector and fuel type). National coal, natural gas, fuel oil, and wood consumption data were grouped by sector: industrial, commercial, residential, electricity generation, and U.S. territories. For the CH₄ and N₂O estimates, wood consumption data for the United States was obtained from EIA's Annual Energy Review (EIA 2010). Fuel consumption data for coal, natural gas, and fuel oil for the United States were obtained from EIA's Monthly Energy Review and unpublished supplemental tables on petroleum product detail (EIA 2011). Because the United States does not include territories in its national energy statistics, fuel consumption data for territories were provided separately by Jacobs (2010).⁸⁴ Fuel consumption for the industrial sector was adjusted to subtract out construction and agricultural use, which is reported under mobile sources.⁸⁵ Construction and agricultural fuel use was obtained from EPA (2010a). Estimates for wood biomass consumption for fuel combustion do not include wood wastes, liquors, municipal solid waste, tires, etc., that are reported as biomass by EIA.

Emission factors for the four end-use sectors were provided by the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006). U.S. territories' emission factors were estimated using the U.S. emission factors for the primary sector in which each fuel was combusted.

More detailed information on the methodology for calculating emissions from stationary combustion, including emission factors and activity data, is provided in Annex 3.1.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

CH₄ emission estimates from stationary sources exhibit high uncertainty, primarily due to difficulties in calculating emissions from wood combustion (i.e., fireplaces and wood stoves). The estimates of CH₄ and N₂O emissions presented are based on broad indicators of emissions (i.e., fuel use multiplied by an aggregate emission factor for different sectors), rather than specific emission processes (i.e., by combustion technology and type of emission control).

An uncertainty analysis was performed by primary fuel type for each end-use sector, using the IPCC-recommended Tier 2 uncertainty estimation methodology, Monte Carlo Simulation technique, with @RISK software.

The uncertainty estimation model for this source category was developed by integrating the CH₄ and N₂O stationary source inventory estimation models with the model for CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion to realistically characterize the interaction (or endogenous correlation) between the variables of these three models. About 55 input variables were simulated for the uncertainty analysis of this source category (about 20 from the CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion inventory estimation model and about 35 from the stationary source inventory models).

In developing the uncertainty estimation model, uniform distribution was assumed for all activity-related input variables and N₂O emission factors, based on the SAIC/EIA (2001) report.⁸⁶ For these variables, the uncertainty

⁸⁴ U.S. territories data also include combustion from mobile activities because data to allocate territories' energy use were unavailable. For this reason, CH₄ and N₂O emissions from combustion by U.S. territories are only included in the stationary combustion totals.

⁸⁵ Though emissions from construction and farm use occur due to both stationary and mobile sources, detailed data was not available to determine the magnitude from each. Currently, these emissions are assumed to be predominantly from mobile sources.

⁸⁶ SAIC/EIA (2001) characterizes the underlying probability density function for the input variables as a combination of uniform and normal distributions (the former distribution to represent the bias component and the latter to represent the random component). However, for purposes of the current uncertainty analysis, it was determined that uniform distribution was more appropriate to characterize the probability density function underlying each of these variables.

ranges were assigned to the input variables based on the data reported in SAIC/EIA (2001).⁸⁷ However, the CH₄ emission factors differ from those used by EIA. Since these factors were obtained from IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997), uncertainty ranges were assigned based on IPCC default uncertainty estimates (IPCC 2000).

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 3-17. Stationary combustion CH₄ emissions in 2009 (including biomass) were estimated to be between 4.1 and 14.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 34 percent below to 127 percent above the 2009 emission estimate of 6.2 Tg CO₂ Eq.⁸⁸ Stationary combustion N₂O emissions in 2009 (*including* biomass) were estimated to be between 9.8 and 36.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 23 percent below to 187 percent above the 2009 emissions estimate of 12.8 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 3-17: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Energy-Related Stationary Combustion, Including Biomass (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Stationary Combustion	CH ₄	6.2	4.1	14.0	-34%	+127%
Stationary Combustion	N ₂ O	12.8	9.8	36.7	-23%	+187%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

The uncertainties associated with the emission estimates of CH₄ and N₂O are greater than those associated with estimates of CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion, which mainly rely on the carbon content of the fuel combusted. Uncertainties in both CH₄ and N₂O estimates are due to the fact that emissions are estimated based on emission factors representing only a limited subset of combustion conditions. For the indirect greenhouse gases, uncertainties are partly due to assumptions concerning combustion technology types, age of equipment, emission factors used, and activity data projections.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A source-specific QA/QC plan for stationary combustion was developed and implemented. This effort included a Tier 1 analysis, as well as portions of a Tier 2 analysis. The Tier 2 procedures that were implemented involved checks specifically focusing on the activity data and emission factor sources and methodology used for estimating CH₄, N₂O, and the indirect greenhouse gases from stationary combustion in the United States. Emission totals for the different sectors and fuels were compared and trends were investigated.

Recalculations Discussion

Historical CH₄ and N₂O emissions from stationary sources (excluding CO₂) were revised due to a couple of changes, mainly impacting 2007 and 2008 estimates. Slight changes to emission estimates for sectors are due to revised data from EIA (2010). Wood consumption data in EIA (2011) were revised for the residential, commercial, and industrial sectors for 2007 and 2008 as well as for the electric power sector for 2006 through 2008. The combination of the methodological and historical data changes resulted in an average annual increase of 0.01 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.2 percent) in CH₄ emissions from stationary combustion and an average annual decrease of 0.08 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.5 percent) in N₂O emissions from stationary combustion for the period 1990 through 2008.

⁸⁷ In the SAIC/EIA (2001) report, the quantitative uncertainty estimates were developed for each of the three major fossil fuels used within each end-use sector; the variations within the sub-fuel types within each end-use sector were not modeled. However, for purposes of assigning uncertainty estimates to the sub-fuel type categories within each end-use sector in the current uncertainty analysis, SAIC/EIA (2001)-reported uncertainty estimates were extrapolated.

⁸⁸ The low emission estimates reported in this section have been rounded down to the nearest integer values and the high emission estimates have been rounded up to the nearest integer values.

Planned Improvements

Several items are being evaluated to improve the CH₄ and N₂O emission estimates from stationary combustion and to reduce uncertainty. Efforts will be taken to work with EIA and other agencies to improve the quality of the U.S. territories data. Because these data are not broken out by stationary and mobile uses, further research will be aimed at trying to allocate consumption appropriately. In addition, the uncertainty of biomass emissions will be further investigated since it was expected that the exclusion of biomass from the uncertainty estimates would reduce the uncertainty; and in actuality the exclusion of biomass increases the uncertainty. These improvements are not all-inclusive, but are part of an ongoing analysis and efforts to continually improve these stationary estimates.

Beginning in 2010, those facilities that emit over 25,000 tons of greenhouse gases (CO₂ Eq.) from stationary combustion across all sectors of the economy are required to calculate and report their greenhouse gas emissions to EPA through its Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program. These data will be used in future inventories to improve the emission calculations through the use of these collected higher tier methodological data.

CH₄ and N₂O from Mobile Combustion

Methodology

Estimates of CH₄ and N₂O emissions from mobile combustion were calculated by multiplying emission factors by measures of activity for each fuel and vehicle type (e.g., light-duty gasoline trucks). Activity data included vehicle miles traveled (VMT) for on-road vehicles and fuel consumption for non-road mobile sources. The activity data and emission factors used are described in the subsections that follow. A complete discussion of the methodology used to estimate CH₄ and N₂O emissions from mobile combustion and the emission factors used in the calculations is provided in Annex 3.2.

On-Road Vehicles

Estimates of CH₄ and N₂O emissions from gasoline and diesel on-road vehicles are based on VMT and emission factors by vehicle type, fuel type, model year, and emission control technology. Emission estimates for alternative fuel vehicles (AFVs)⁸⁹ are based on VMT and emission factors by vehicle and fuel type.

Emission factors for gasoline and diesel on-road vehicles utilizing Tier 2 and Low Emission Vehicle (LEV) technologies were developed by ICF (2006b); all other gasoline and diesel on-road vehicle emissions factors were developed by ICF (2004). These factors were derived from EPA, California Air Resources Board (CARB) and Environment Canada laboratory test results of different vehicle and control technology types. The EPA, CARB and Environment Canada tests were designed following the Federal Test Procedure (FTP), which covers three separate driving segments, since vehicles emit varying amounts of greenhouse gases depending on the driving segment. These driving segments are: (1) a transient driving cycle that includes cold start and running emissions, (2) a cycle that represents running emissions only, and (3) a transient driving cycle that includes hot start and running emissions. For each test run, a bag was affixed to the tailpipe of the vehicle and the exhaust was collected; the content of this bag was then analyzed to determine quantities of gases present. The emissions characteristics of segment 2 were used to define running emissions, and subtracted from the total FTP emissions to determine start emissions. These were then recombined based upon the ratio of start to running emissions for each vehicle class from MOBILE6.2, an EPA emission factor model that predicts gram per mile emissions of CO₂, CO, HC, NO_x, and PM from vehicles under various conditions, to approximate average driving characteristics.⁹⁰

Emission factors for AFVs were developed by ICF (2006a) after examining Argonne National Laboratory's GREET 1.7-Transportation Fuel Cycle Model (ANL 2006) and Lipman and Delucchi (2002). These sources describe AFV emission factors in terms of ratios to conventional vehicle emission factors. Ratios of AFV to conventional vehicle emissions factors were then applied to estimated Tier 1 emissions factors from light-duty gasoline vehicles to estimate light-duty AFVs. Emissions factors for heavy-duty AFVs were developed in relation to gasoline heavy-duty vehicles. A complete discussion of the data source and methodology used to determine emission factors from

⁸⁹ Alternative fuel and advanced technology vehicles are those that can operate using a motor fuel other than gasoline or diesel. This includes electric or other bi-fuel or dual-fuel vehicles that may be partially powered by gasoline or diesel.

⁹⁰ Additional information regarding the model can be found online at <http://www.epa.gov/OMS/m6.htm>.

AFVs is provided in Annex 3.2.

Annual VMT data for 1990 through 2010 were obtained from the Federal Highway Administration's (FHWA) Highway Performance Monitoring System database as reported in Highway Statistics (FHWA 1996 through 2010).⁹¹ VMT estimates were then allocated from FHWA's vehicle categories to fuel-specific vehicle categories using the calculated shares of vehicle fuel use for each vehicle category by fuel type reported in DOE (1993 through 2010) and information on total motor vehicle fuel consumption by fuel type from FHWA (1996 through 2010). VMT for AFVs were taken from Browning (2003). The age distributions of the U.S. vehicle fleet were obtained from EPA (2010a, 2000), and the average annual age-specific vehicle mileage accumulation of U.S. vehicles were obtained from EPA (2000).

Control technology and standards data for on-road vehicles were obtained from EPA's Office of Transportation and Air Quality (EPA 2007a, 2007b, 2000, 1998, and 1997) and Browning (2005). These technologies and standards are defined in Annex 3.2, and were compiled from EPA (1993, 1994a, 1994b, 1998, 1999a) and IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997).

Non-Road Vehicles

To estimate emissions from non-road vehicles, fuel consumption data were employed as a measure of activity, and multiplied by fuel-specific emission factors (in grams of N₂O and CH₄ per kilogram of fuel consumed).⁹² Activity data were obtained from AAR (2009 through 2010), APTA (2007 through 2010), APTA (2006), BEA (1991 through 2005), Benson (2002 through 2004), DHS (2008), DOC (1991 through 2008), DOE (1993 through 2010), DESC (2011), DOT (1991 through 2010), EIA (2008a, 2007a, 2007b, 2002), EIA (2007 through 2010), EIA (1991 through 2011), EPA (2009), Esser (2003 through 2004), FAA (2011, 2010, and 2006), Gaffney (2007), and (2006 through 2010). Emission factors for non-road modes were taken from IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997) and Browning (2009).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

A quantitative uncertainty analysis was conducted for the mobile source sector using the IPCC-recommended Tier 2 uncertainty estimation methodology, Monte Carlo simulation technique, using @RISK software. The uncertainty analysis was performed on 2009 estimates of CH₄ and N₂O emissions, incorporating probability distribution functions associated with the major input variables. For the purposes of this analysis, the uncertainty was modeled for the following four major sets of input variables: (1) vehicle miles traveled (VMT) data, by on-road vehicle and fuel type and (2) emission factor data, by on-road vehicle, fuel, and control technology type, (3) fuel consumption, data, by non-road vehicle and equipment type, and (4) emission factor data, by non-road vehicle and equipment type.

Uncertainty analyses were not conducted for NO_x, CO, or NMVOC emissions. Emission factors for these gases have been extensively researched since emissions of these gases from motor vehicles are regulated in the United States, and the uncertainty in these emission estimates is believed to be relatively low. However, a much higher level of uncertainty is associated with CH₄ and N₂O emission factors, because emissions of these gases are not regulated in the United States (and, therefore, there are not adequate emission test data), and because, unlike CO₂ emissions, the emission pathways of CH₄ and N₂O are highly complex.

Mobile combustion CH₄ emissions from all mobile sources in 2009 were estimated to be between 1.8 and 2.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 9 percent below to 15 percent above the corresponding 2009 emission estimate of 2.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. Also at a 95 percent confidence level, mobile combustion N₂O emissions from mobile sources in 2009 were estimated to be between 20.5 and 27.9 Tg CO₂ Eq., indicating a range of 14 percent below to 17 percent above the corresponding 2009 emission estimate of 23.9 Tg CO₂ Eq.

⁹¹ Fuel use by vehicle class (VM-1 table) was not available from FHWA for 2009, but changes in overall diesel and gasoline consumption were released in Table MF21. Fuel use in vehicle classes that were predominantly gasoline were estimated to grow by the rate of growth for gasoline between 2008 and 2009. Fuel use in vehicle classes that were predominantly diesel were estimated to fall by the same rate that diesel fuel consumption fell overall in 2009. VMT was then distributed to vehicle classes based on these fuel consumption estimates, assuming no relative change in MPG between vehicle classes.

⁹² The consumption of international bunker fuels is not included in these activity data, but is estimated separately under the International Bunker Fuels source category.

Table 3-18: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Mobile Sources (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate ^a (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Mobile Sources	CH ₄	2.0	1.8	2.2	-9%	+15%
Mobile Sources	N ₂ O	23.9	20.5	27.9	-14%	+17%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

This uncertainty analysis is a continuation of a multi-year process for developing quantitative uncertainty estimates for this source category using the IPCC Tier 2 approach to uncertainty analysis. As a result, as new information becomes available, uncertainty characterization of input variables may be improved and revised. For additional information regarding uncertainty in emission estimates for CH₄ and N₂O please refer to the Uncertainty Annex.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2008. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A source-specific QA/QC plan for mobile combustion was developed and implemented. This plan is based on the IPCC-recommended QA/QC Plan. The specific plan used for mobile combustion was updated prior to collection and analysis of this current year of data. This effort included a Tier 1 analysis, as well as portions of a Tier 2 analysis. The Tier 2 procedures focused on the emission factor and activity data sources, as well as the methodology used for estimating emissions. These procedures included a qualitative assessment of the emissions estimates to determine whether they appear consistent with the most recent activity data and emission factors available. A comparison of historical emissions between the current Inventory and the previous Inventory was also conducted to ensure that the changes in estimates were consistent with the changes in activity data and emission factors.

Recalculations Discussion

In order to ensure that these estimates are continuously improved, the calculation methodology is revised annually based on comments from internal and external reviewers. Each year, a number of adjustments are made to the methodologies used in calculating emissions in the current Inventory relative to previous Inventory reports. One of the revisions that were made this year was incorporating motor vehicle age distribution from EPA's Motor Vehicle Emission Simulator (MOVES) model. MOVES is EPA's tool for estimating emissions from highway vehicles, based on analysis of millions of emission test results and considerable advances in EPA's understanding of vehicle emissions. Population data from the MOVES model was used to estimate the age distribution of motor vehicles in the United States.

Planned Improvements

While the data used for this report represent the most accurate information available, four areas have been identified that could potentially be improved in the short-term given available resources.

1. Develop updated emissions factors for diesel vehicles, motorcycle, and biodiesel vehicles. Previous emission factors were based upon extrapolations from other vehicle classes and new test data from Environment Canada and other sources may allow for better estimation of emission factors for these vehicles.
2. Develop new emission factors for non-road equipment. The current inventory estimates for non-CO₂ emissions from non-road sources are based on emission factors from IPCC guidelines published in 1996. Recent data on non-road sources from Environment Canada and the California Air Resources Board will be investigated in order to assess the feasibility of developing new N₂O and CH₄ emissions factors for non-road equipment.
3. Examine the feasibility of estimating aircraft N₂O and CH₄ emissions by the number of takeoffs and landings, instead of total fuel consumption. Various studies have indicated that aircraft N₂O and CH₄

emissions are more dependent on aircraft takeoffs and landings than on total aircraft fuel consumption; however, aircraft emissions are currently estimated from fuel consumption data. FAA's SAGE and AEDT databases contain detailed data on takeoffs and landings for each calendar year starting in 2000, and could potentially be used to conduct a Tier II analysis of aircraft emissions. This methodology will require a detailed analysis of the number of takeoffs and landings by aircraft type on domestic trips, the development of procedures to develop comparable estimates for years prior to 2000, and the dynamic interaction of ambient air with aircraft exhausts is developed. The feasibility of this approach will be explored.

Develop improved estimates of domestic waterborne fuel consumption. The inventory estimates for residual and distillate fuel used by ships and boats is based in part on data on bunker fuel use from the U.S. Department of Commerce. Domestic fuel consumption is estimated by subtracting fuel sold for international use from the total sold in the United States. It may be possible to more accurately estimate domestic fuel use and emissions by using detailed data on marine ship activity. The feasibility of using domestic marine activity data to improve the estimates will be investigated. Continue to examine the use of EPA's MOVES model in the development of the inventory estimates, including use for uncertainty analysis. Although the inventory uses some of the underlying data from MOVES, such as vehicle age distributions by model year, MOVES is not used directly in calculating mobile source emissions. As MOVES goes through additional testing and refinement, the use of MOVES will be further explored.

3.2. Carbon Emitted from Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels (IPCC Source Category 1A)

In addition to being combusted for energy, fossil fuels are also consumed for non-energy uses (NEU) in the United States. The fuels used for these purposes are diverse, including natural gas, liquefied petroleum gases (LPG), asphalt (a viscous liquid mixture of heavy crude oil distillates), petroleum coke (manufactured from heavy oil), and coal (metallurgical) coke (manufactured from coking coal). The non-energy applications of these fuels are equally diverse, including feedstocks for the manufacture of plastics, rubber, synthetic fibers and other materials; reducing agents for the production of various metals and inorganic products; and non-energy products such as lubricants, waxes, and asphalt (IPCC 2006).

CO₂ emissions arise from non-energy uses via several pathways. Emissions may occur during the manufacture of a product, as is the case in producing plastics or rubber from fuel-derived feedstocks. Additionally, emissions may occur during the product's lifetime, such as during solvent use. Overall, throughout the time series and across all uses, about 61 percent of the total C consumed for non-energy purposes was stored in products, and not released to the atmosphere; the remaining 39 percent was emitted.

There are several areas in which non-energy uses of fossil fuels are closely related to other parts of the inventory. For example, some of the NEU products release CO₂ at the end of their commercial life when they are combusted after disposal; these emissions are reported separately within the Energy chapter in the Incineration of Waste source category. In addition, there is some overlap between fossil fuels consumed for non-energy uses and the fossil-derived CO₂ emissions accounted for in the Industrial Processes chapter, especially for fuels used as reducing agents. To avoid double-counting, the "raw" non-energy fuel consumption data reported by EIA are modified to account for these overlaps. There are also net exports of petrochemicals that are not completely accounted for in the EIA data, and the inventory calculations make adjustments to address the effect of net exports on the mass of C in non-energy applications.

As shown in Table 3-19, fossil fuel emissions in 2009 from the non-energy uses of fossil fuels were 123.4 Tg CO₂ Eq., which constituted approximately 2 percent of overall fossil fuel emissions. In 2009, the consumption of fuels for non-energy uses (after the adjustments described above) was 4,451.0 TBtu, an increase of 0.2 percent since 1990 (see Table 3-20). About 49.9 Tg of the C (182.8 Tg CO₂ Eq.) in these fuels was stored, while the remaining 33.6 Tg C (123.4 Tg CO₂ Eq.) was emitted.

Table 3-19: CO₂ Emissions from Non-Energy Use Fossil Fuel Consumption (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Year	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Potential Emissions	310.8	383.6	381.6	381.7	370.1	344.9	306.1
C Stored	192.2	238.6	238.3	236.1	232.8	204.0	182.8
Emissions as a % of Potential	38%	38%	38%	38%	37%	41%	40%
Emissions	118.6	144.9	143.4	145.6	137.2	141.0	123.4

Methodology

The first step in estimating C stored in products was to determine the aggregate quantity of fossil fuels consumed for non-energy uses. The C content of these feedstock fuels is equivalent to potential emissions, or the product of consumption and the fuel-specific C content values. Both the non-energy fuel consumption and C content data were supplied by the EIA (2011) (see Annex 2.1). Consumption of natural gas, LPG, pentanes plus, naphthas, other oils, and special naphtha were adjusted to account for net exports of these products that are not reflected in the raw data from EIA. Consumption values for industrial coking coal, petroleum coke, other oils, and natural gas in Table 3-20 and Table 3-21 have been adjusted to subtract non-energy uses that are included in the source categories of the Industrial Processes chapter.⁹³ Consumption values were also adjusted to subtract net exports of intermediary chemicals.

For the remaining non-energy uses, the quantity of C stored was estimated by multiplying the potential emissions by a storage factor.

- For several fuel types—petrochemical feedstocks (including natural gas for non-fertilizer uses, LPG, pentanes plus, naphthas, other oils, still gas, special naphtha, and industrial other coal), asphalt and road oil, lubricants, and waxes—U.S. data on C stocks and flows were used to develop C storage factors, calculated as the ratio of (a) the C stored by the fuel's non-energy products to (b) the total C content of the fuel consumed. A lifecycle approach was used in the development of these factors in order to account for losses in the production process and during use. Because losses associated with municipal solid waste management are handled separately in this sector under the Incineration of Waste source category, the storage factors do not account for losses at the disposal end of the life cycle.
- For industrial coking coal and distillate fuel oil, storage factors were taken from IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997), which in turn draws from Marland and Rotty (1984).
- For the remaining fuel types (petroleum coke, miscellaneous products, and other petroleum), IPCC does not provide guidance on storage factors, and assumptions were made based on the potential fate of C in the respective NEU products.

Table 3-20: Adjusted Consumption of Fossil Fuels for Non-Energy Uses (TBtu)

Year	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Industry	4,181.1	5,214.4	5,174.4	5,163.2	5,060.7	4,671.9	4,267.7
Industrial Coking Coal	+	53.0	79.8	62.3	1.7	28.4	6.1
Industrial Other Coal	8.2	12.4	11.9	12.4	12.4	12.4	12.4
Natural Gas to Chemical Plants	277.3	420.3	397.0	407.7	412.5	395.2	366.0
Asphalt & Road Oil	1,170.2	1,275.7	1,323.2	1,261.2	1,197.0	1,012.0	873.1
LPG	1,119.2	1,607.0	1,444.0	1,488.6	1,483.0	1,409.6	1,446.2
Lubricants	186.3	189.9	160.2	156.1	161.2	149.6	134.5
Pentanes Plus	77.5	229.3	146.3	105.5	132.7	114.9	93.4
Naphtha (<401 ° F)	325.9	593.7	679.6	618.1	542.6	467.3	450.7
Other Oil (>401 ° F)	661.4	527.0	514.8	573.4	669.2	599.2	392.5
Still Gas	21.3	12.6	67.7	57.2	44.2	47.3	133.9
Petroleum Coke	54.8	35.3	128.8	172.2	155.9	174.4	133.0
Special Naphtha	100.8	94.4	60.9	68.9	75.5	83.2	44.2
Distillate Fuel Oil	7.0	11.7	16.0	17.5	17.5	17.5	17.5
Waxes	33.3	33.1	31.4	26.1	21.9	19.1	12.2
Miscellaneous Products	137.8	119.2	112.8	136.0	133.5	142.0	151.8
Transportation	176.0	179.4	151.3	147.4	152.2	141.3	127.1
Lubricants	176.0	179.4	151.3	147.4	152.2	141.3	127.1
U.S. Territories	86.7	152.2	121.9	133.4	108.4	126.7	56.3
Lubricants	0.7	3.1	4.6	6.2	5.9	2.7	1.0

⁹³ These source categories include Iron and Steel Production, Lead Production, Zinc Production, Ammonia Manufacture, Carbon Black Manufacture (included in Petrochemical Production), Titanium Dioxide Production, Ferroalloy Production, Silicon Carbide Production, and Aluminum Production.

Other Petroleum (Misc. Prod.)	86.0	149.1	117.3	127.2	102.5	124.1	55.2
Total	4,443.8	5,546.0	5,447.6	5,444.0	5,321.3	4,940.0	4,451.0

+ Does not exceed 0.05 TBtu

Note: To avoid double-counting, coal coke, petroleum coke, natural gas consumption, and other oils are adjusted for industrial process consumption reported in the Industrial Processes sector. Natural gas, LPG, Pentanes Plus, Naphthas, Special Naphtha, and Other Oils are adjusted to account for exports of chemical intermediates derived from these fuels. For residual oil (not shown in the table), all non-energy use is assumed to be consumed in C black production, which is also reported in the Industrial Processes chapter.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-21: 2009 Adjusted Non-Energy Use Fossil Fuel Consumption, Storage, and Emissions

Sector/Fuel Type	Adjusted Non-Energy Use ^a (TBtu)	Carbon Content Coefficient (Tg C/QBtu)	Potential Carbon (Tg C)	Storage Factor	Carbon Stored (Tg C)	Carbon Emissions (Tg C)	Carbon Emissions (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)
Industry	4,267.7	-	79.8	-	49.5	30.3	111.1
Industrial Coking Coal	6.1	31.00	0.2	0.10	0.0	0.2	0.6
Industrial Other Coal	12.4	25.82	0.3	0.58	0.2	0.1	0.5
Natural Gas to Chemical Plants	366.0	14.47	5.3	0.58	3.1	2.2	8.1
Asphalt & Road Oil	873.1	20.55	17.9	1.00	17.9	0.1	0.3
LPG	1,446.2	17.06	24.7	0.58	14.3	10.3	37.9
Lubricants	134.5	20.20	2.7	0.09	0.2	2.5	9.0
Pentanes Plus	93.4	19.10	1.8	0.58	1.0	0.7	2.7
Naphtha (<401° F)	450.7	18.55	8.4	0.58	4.9	3.5	12.9
Other Oil (>401° F)	392.5	20.17	7.9	0.58	4.6	3.3	12.2
Still Gas	133.9	17.51	2.3	0.58	1.4	1.0	3.6
Petroleum Coke	133.0	27.85	3.7	0.30	1.1	2.6	9.5
Special Naphtha	44.2	19.74	0.9	0.58	0.5	0.4	1.3
Distillate Fuel Oil	17.5	20.17	0.4	0.50	0.2	0.2	0.6
Waxes	12.2	19.80	0.2	0.58	0.1	0.1	0.4
Miscellaneous Products	151.8	20.31	3.1	0.00	0.0	3.1	11.3
Transportation	127.1	-	2.6	-	0.2	2.3	8.5
Lubricants	127.1	20.20	2.6	0.09	0.2	2.3	8.5
U.S. Territories	56.3	-	1.1	-	0.1	1.0	3.7
Lubricants	1.0	20.20	+	0.09	+	+	0.1
Other Petroleum (Misc. Prod.)	55.2	20.00	1.1	0.10	0.1	1.0	3.6
Total	4,451.0	-	83.5	-	49.9	33.6	123.4

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg

- Not applicable.

^aTo avoid double counting, net exports have been deducted.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Lastly, emissions were estimated by subtracting the C stored from the potential emissions (see Table 3-19). More detail on the methodology for calculating storage and emissions from each of these sources is provided in Annex 2.3.

Where storage factors were calculated specifically for the United States, data were obtained on (1) products such as asphalt, plastics, synthetic rubber, synthetic fibers, cleansers (soaps and detergents), pesticides, food additives, antifreeze and deicers (glycols), and silicones; and (2) industrial releases including energy recovery, Toxics Release Inventory (TRI) releases, hazardous waste incineration, and volatile organic compound, solvent, and non-combustion CO emissions. Data were taken from a variety of industry sources, government reports, and expert communications. Sources include EPA reports and databases such as compilations of air emission factors (EPA 2001), *National Emissions Inventory (NEI) Air Pollutant Emissions Trends Data* (EPA 2010), *Toxics Release Inventory, 1998* (2000b), *Biennial Reporting System* (EPA 2004, 2007a), and pesticide sales and use estimates

(EPA 1998, 1999, 2002, 2004); the EIA Manufacturer's Energy Consumption Survey (MECS) (EIA 1994, 1997, 2001, 2005, 2010); the National Petrochemical & Refiners Association (NPRA 2002); the U.S. Bureau of the Census (1999, 2004, 2009); Bank of Canada (2009); Financial Planning Association (2006); INEGI (2006); the United States International Trade Commission (2011); Gosselin, Smith, and Hodge (1984); the Rubber Manufacturers' Association (RMA 2009a,b); the International Institute of Synthetic Rubber Products (IISRP 2000, 2003); the Fiber Economics Bureau (FEB 2010); and the American Chemistry Council (ACC 2003-2010). Specific data sources are listed in full detail in Annex 2.3.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

An uncertainty analysis was conducted to quantify the uncertainty surrounding the estimates of emissions and storage factors from non-energy uses. This analysis, performed using @RISK software and the IPCC-recommended Tier 2 methodology (Monte Carlo Simulation technique), provides for the specification of probability density functions for key variables within a computational structure that mirrors the calculation of the inventory estimate. The results presented below provide the 95 percent confidence interval, the range of values within which emissions are likely to fall, for this source category.

As noted above, the non-energy use analysis is based on U.S.-specific storage factors for (1) feedstock materials (natural gas, LPG, pentanes plus, naphthas, other oils, still gas, special naphthas, and other industrial coal), (2) asphalt, (3) lubricants, and (4) waxes. For the remaining fuel types (the "other" category in Table 3-22 and Table 3-23), the storage factors were taken directly from the IPCC *Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories*, where available, and otherwise assumptions were made based on the potential fate of carbon in the respective NEU products. To characterize uncertainty, five separate analyses were conducted, corresponding to each of the five categories. In all cases, statistical analyses or expert judgments of uncertainty were not available directly from the information sources for all the activity variables; thus, uncertainty estimates were determined using assumptions based on source category knowledge.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 3-22 (emissions) and Table 3-23 (storage factors). Carbon emitted from non-energy uses of fossil fuels in 2009 was estimated to be between 97.6 and 135.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 21 percent below to 10 percent above the 2009 emission estimate of 123.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. The uncertainty in the emission estimates is a function of uncertainty in both the quantity of fuel used for non-energy purposes and the storage factor.

Table 3-22: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feedstocks	CO ₂	79.3	63.4	96.1	-20%	21%
Asphalt	CO ₂	0.3	0.1	0.6	-58%	119%
Lubricants	CO ₂	17.7	14.6	20.5	-17%	16%
Waxes	CO ₂	0.4	0.3	0.7	-29%	74%
Other	CO ₂	25.7	10.3	27.0	-60%	5%
Total	CO₂	123.4	97.6	135.3	-21%	10%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

NA (Not Applicable)

Table 3-23: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for Storage Factors of Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels (Percent)

(Percent)						
Source	Gas	2009 Storage Factor (%)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			Range		Relative	
			(%)	(%)	(%, Relative)	(%, Relative)
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feedstocks	CO ₂	58%	56%	60%	-3%	4%
Asphalt	CO ₂	99.6%	99.1%	99.8%	-0.5%	0.3%
Lubricants	CO ₂	9%	4%	17%	-57%	91%
Waxes	CO ₂	58%	49%	71%	-15%	22%
Other	CO ₂	17%	16%	66%	-3%	292%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval, as a percentage of the inventory value (also expressed in percent terms).

In Table 3-23, feedstocks and asphalt contribute least to overall storage factor uncertainty on a percentage basis. Although the feedstocks category—the largest use category in terms of total carbon flows—appears to have tight confidence limits, this is to some extent an artifact of the way the uncertainty analysis was structured. As discussed in Annex 2.3, the storage factor for feedstocks is based on an analysis of six fates that result in long-term storage (e.g., plastics production), and eleven that result in emissions (e.g., volatile organic compound emissions). Rather than modeling the total uncertainty around all of these fate processes, the current analysis addresses only the storage fates, and assumes that all C that is not stored is emitted. As the production statistics that drive the storage values are relatively well-characterized, this approach yields a result that is probably biased toward understating uncertainty.

As is the case with the other uncertainty analyses discussed throughout this document, the uncertainty results above address only those factors that can be readily quantified. More details on the uncertainty analysis are provided in Annex 2.3.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A source-specific QA/QC plan for non-energy uses of fossil fuels was developed and implemented. This effort included a Tier 1 analysis, as well as portions of a Tier 2 analysis for non-energy uses involving petrochemical feedstocks and for imports and exports. The Tier 2 procedures that were implemented involved checks specifically focusing on the activity data and methodology for estimating the fate of C (in terms of storage and emissions) across the various end-uses of fossil C. Emission and storage totals for the different subcategories were compared, and trends across the time series were analyzed to determine whether any corrective actions were needed. Corrective actions were taken to rectify minor errors and to improve the transparency of the calculations, facilitating future QA/QC.

For petrochemical import and export data, special attention was paid to NAICS numbers and titles to verify that none had changed or been removed. Import and export totals were compared for 2009 as well as their trends across the time series.

Recalculations Discussion

In previous Inventories, the storage factor for asphalt was incorrectly assumed to be 100 percent. For the current Inventory, it has been updated to 99.6 percent to reflect some loss of VOCs (see Annex 2.3 for more detailed discussion).

Updates to the EIA Manufacturer's Energy Consumption Survey (MECS) for 2006 were released in the past year. MECS data are only released once every four years and contribute to approximately 28 percent (as a time-weighted average) of the C accounted for in feedstocks. MECS data are used to estimate the amount of C emitted from energy recovery. Updating the energy recovery emission estimates with this new data affected emissions from 2003

through 2009, resulting in annual average increases of 7 percent from 2003 through 2009. In addition, the entire energy recovery time series was recalculated to adjust for energy recovered from combustion of scrap tires. Carbon emissions from scrap tires were inadvertently included in the energy recovery estimates; however, they are already accounted for in the Incineration of Waste category.⁹⁴ MECS data were adjusted to remove C from scrap tires used as fuel in cement kilns, lime kilns, and electric arc furnaces. This adjustment resulted in decreases in emissions across the entire time series. Emissions decreased by 0.3, 2.1, 1.3, and 1.5 percent for MECS-reporting years 1991, 1994, 1998, and 2002, respectively. Updating the energy recovery emission estimates with the 2006 MECS data combined with adjusting for combustion of scrap tires increased the 2006 emission estimate by 9.5 percent. Overall, emissions from energy recovery averaged over the entire time series increased by 1.2 percent when compared to last year's inventory estimate because the increase resulting from updating the MECS data more than offsets the decrease from adjusting for scrap tire combustion across the time series.

Planned Improvements

There are several improvements planned for the future:

- Improving the uncertainty analysis. Most of the input parameter distributions are based on professional judgment rather than rigorous statistical characterizations of uncertainty.
- Better characterizing flows of fossil C. Additional fates may be researched, including the fossil C load in organic chemical wastewaters, plasticizers, adhesives, films, paints, and coatings. There is also a need to further clarify the treatment of fuel additives and backflows (especially methyl tert-butyl ether, MTBE).
- Reviewing the trends in fossil fuel consumption for non-energy uses. Annual consumption for several fuel types is highly variable across the time series, including industrial coking coal and other petroleum (miscellaneous products). EPA plans to better understand these trends to identify any mischaracterized or misreported fuel consumption for non-energy uses.
- More accurate accounting of C in petrochemical feedstocks. Since 2001, the C accounted for in the feedstocks C balance outputs (i.e., storage plus emissions) exceeds C inputs. Prior to 2001, the C balance inputs exceed outputs. EPA plans to research this discrepancy by assessing the trends on both sides of the C balance. An initial review of EIA (2011) data indicates that trends in LPG consumption for non-energy uses may largely contribute to this discrepancy.
- More accurate accounting of C in imports and exports. As part of its effort to address the C balance discrepancy, EPA will examine its import/export adjustment methodology to ensure that net exports of intermediaries such as ethylene and propylene are fully accounted for.
- EPA recently researched updating the average carbon content of solvents, since the entire time series depends on one year's worth of solvent composition data. Unfortunately, the data on C emissions from solvents that were readily available do not provide composition data for all categories of solvent emissions and also have conflicting definitions for volatile organic compounds, the source of emissive carbon in solvents. EPA plans to identify additional sources of solvents data in order to update the C content assumptions.

Finally, although U.S.-specific storage factors have been developed for feedstocks, asphalt, lubricants, and waxes, default values from IPCC are still used for two of the non-energy fuel types (industrial coking coal and distillate oil), and broad assumptions are being used for miscellaneous products and other petroleum. Over the long term, there are plans to improve these storage factors by conducting analyses of C fate similar to those described in Annex 2.3 or deferring to more updated default storage factors from IPCC where available.

3.3. Incineration of Waste (IPCC Source Category 1A1a)

Incineration is used to manage about 7 to 19 percent of the solid wastes generated in the United States, depending on the source of the estimate and the scope of materials included in the definition of solid waste (EPA 2000, Goldstein

⁹⁴ From a regulatory-definition perspective combustion of scrap tires in cement kilns, lime kilns, and electric arc furnaces is not considered "incineration;" however the use of the term "incineration" in this document also applies to the combustion of scrap tires and other materials for energy recovery.

and Matdes 2001, Kaufman et al. 2004, Simmons et al. 2006, van Haaren et al. 2010). In the context of this section, waste includes all municipal solid waste (MSW) as well as tires. In the United States, almost all incineration of MSW occurs at waste-to-energy facilities or industrial facilities where useful energy is recovered, and thus emissions from waste incineration are accounted for in the Energy chapter. Similarly, tires are combusted for energy recovery in industrial and utility boilers. Incineration of waste results in conversion of the organic inputs to CO₂. According to IPCC guidelines, when the CO₂ emitted is of fossil origin, it is counted as a net anthropogenic emission of CO₂ to the atmosphere. Thus, the emissions from waste incineration are calculated by estimating the quantity of waste combusted and the fraction of the waste that is C derived from fossil sources.

Most of the organic materials in municipal solid wastes are of biogenic origin (e.g., paper, yard trimmings), and have their net C flows accounted for under the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter. However, some components—plastics, synthetic rubber, synthetic fibers, and carbon black—are of fossil origin. Plastics in the U.S. waste stream are primarily in the form of containers, packaging, and durable goods. Rubber is found in durable goods, such as carpets, and in non-durable goods, such as clothing and footwear. Fibers in municipal solid wastes are predominantly from clothing and home furnishings. As noted above, tires (which contain rubber and carbon black) are also considered a “non-hazardous” waste and are included in the waste incineration estimate, though waste disposal practices for tires differ from municipal solid waste. Estimates on emissions from hazardous waste incineration can be found in Annex 2.3 and are accounted for as part of the carbon mass balance for non-energy uses of fossil fuels.

Approximately 26 million metric tons of MSW was incinerated in the United States in 2009 (EPA 2011). CO₂ emissions from incineration of waste rose 54 percent since 1990, to an estimated 12.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (12,300 Gg) in 2009, as the volume of tires and other fossil C-containing materials in waste increased (see Table 3-24 and Table 3-25). Waste incineration is also a source of N₂O and CH₄ emissions (De Soete 1993; IPCC 2006). N₂O emissions from the incineration of waste were estimated to be 0.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1 Gg N₂O) in 2009, and have not changed significantly since 1990. CH₄ emissions from the incineration of waste were estimated to be less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq. (less than 0.5 Gg CH₄) in 2009, and have not changed significantly since 1990.

Table 3-24: CO₂ and N₂O Emissions from the Incineration of Waste (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Waste Product	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO₂	8.0	11.1	12.5	12.5	12.7	12.2	12.3
Plastics	5.6	6.1	6.9	6.7	6.7	6.1	6.2
Synthetic Rubber in Tires	0.3	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.8
Carbon Black in Tires	0.4	1.8	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.3	2.3
Synthetic Rubber in MSW	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
Synthetic Fibers	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2
N₂O	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
CH₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	8.5	11.5	12.9	12.9	13.1	12.5	12.7

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 3-25: CO₂ and N₂O Emissions from the Incineration of Waste (Gg)

Gas/Waste Product	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO₂	7,989	11,112	12,450	12,531	12,700	12,169	12,300
Plastics	5,588	6,104	6,919	6,722	6,660	6,148	6,233
Synthetic Rubber in Tires	308	1,454	1,599	1,712	1,823	1,823	1,823
Carbon Black in Tires	385	1,818	1,958	2,113	2,268	2,268	2,268
Synthetic Rubber in MSW	872	689	781	775	791	770	782
Synthetic Fibers	838	1,046	1,194	1,208	1,159	1,161	1,195
N₂O	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
CH₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg.

Methodology

Emissions of CO₂ from the incineration of waste include CO₂ generated by the incineration of plastics, synthetic fibers, and synthetic rubber, as well as the incineration of synthetic rubber and carbon black in tires. These emissions

were estimated by multiplying the amount of each material incinerated by the C content of the material and the fraction oxidized (98 percent). Plastics incinerated in municipal solid wastes were categorized into seven plastic resin types, each material having a discrete C content. Similarly, synthetic rubber is categorized into three product types, and synthetic fibers were categorized into four product types, each having a discrete C content. Scrap tires contain several types of synthetic rubber, as well as carbon black. Each type of synthetic rubber has a discrete C content, and carbon black is 100 percent C. Emissions of CO₂ were calculated based on the amount of scrap tires used for fuel and the synthetic rubber and carbon black content of tires.

More detail on the methodology for calculating emissions from each of these waste incineration sources is provided in Annex 3.6.

For each of the methods used to calculate CO₂ emissions from the incineration of waste, data on the quantity of product combusted and the C content of the product are needed. For plastics, synthetic rubber, and synthetic fibers, the amount of specific materials discarded as municipal solid waste (i.e., the quantity generated minus the quantity recycled) was taken from *Municipal Solid Waste Generation, Recycling, and Disposal in the United States: Facts and Figures* (EPA 1999 through 2003, 2005 through 2011) and detailed unpublished backup data for some years not shown in the reports (Schneider 2007). The proportion of total waste discarded that is incinerated was derived from data in BioCycle's "State of Garbage in America" (van Haaren et al. 2010). The most recent data provides the proportion of waste incinerated for 2008, so the corresponding proportion in 2009 is assumed to be equal to the proportion in 2008. For synthetic rubber and carbon black in scrap tires, information was obtained from U.S. Scrap Tire Markets in the United States, 2007 Edition (RMA 2009a). For 2008 and 2009, synthetic rubber mass in tires is assumed to be equal to that in 2007 due to a lack of more recently available data.

Average C contents for the "Other" plastics category and synthetic rubber in municipal solid wastes were calculated from 1998 and 2002 production statistics: carbon content for 1990 through 1998 is based on the 1998 value; content for 1999 through 2001 is the average of 1998 and 2002 values; and content for 2002 to date is based on the 2002 value. Carbon content for synthetic fibers was calculated from 1999 production statistics. Information about scrap tire composition was taken from the Rubber Manufacturers' Association internet site (RMA 2009b).

The assumption that 98 percent of organic C is oxidized (which applies to all waste incineration categories for CO₂ emissions) was reported in EPA's life cycle analysis of greenhouse gas emissions and sinks from management of solid waste (EPA 2006).

Incineration of waste, including MSW, also results in emissions of N₂O and CH₄. These emissions were calculated as a function of the total estimated mass of waste incinerated and an emission factor. As noted above, N₂O and CH₄ emissions are a function of total waste incinerated in each year; for 1990 through 2008, these data were derived from the information published in BioCycle (van Haaren et al. 2010). Data on total waste incinerated was not available for 2009, so this value was assumed to equal the most recent value available (2008). Table 3-26 provides data on municipal solid waste discarded and percentage combusted for the total waste stream. According to Covanta Energy (Bahor 2009) and confirmed by additional research based on ISWA (ERC 2009), all municipal solid waste combustors in the United States are continuously fed stoker units. The emission factors of N₂O and CH₄ emissions per quantity of municipal solid waste combusted are default emission factors for this technology type and were taken from the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006).

Table 3-26: Municipal Solid Waste Generation (Metric Tons) and Percent Combusted.

Year	Waste Discarded	Waste Incinerated	Incinerated (% of Discards)
1990	235,733,657	30,632,057	13.0
2000	252,328,354	25,974,978	10.3
2005	259,559,787	25,973,520	10.0
2006	267,526,493	25,853,401	9.7
2007	268,279,240	24,788,539	9.2
2008	268,541,088	23,674,017	8.8
2009	268,541,088 ^a	23,674,017 ^a	8.8 ^a

^a Assumed equal to 2008 value.

Source: van Haaren et al. (2010).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

A Tier 2 Monte Carlo analysis was performed to determine the level of uncertainty surrounding the estimates of CO₂ emissions and N₂O emissions from the incineration of waste (given the very low emissions for CH₄, no uncertainty estimate was derived). IPCC Tier 2 analysis allows the specification of probability density functions for key variables within a computational structure that mirrors the calculation of the inventory estimate. Uncertainty estimates and distributions for waste generation variables (i.e., plastics, synthetic rubber, and textiles generation) were obtained through a conversation with one of the authors of the Municipal Solid Waste in the United States reports. Statistical analyses or expert judgments of uncertainty were not available directly from the information sources for the other variables; thus, uncertainty estimates for these variables were determined using assumptions based on source category knowledge and the known uncertainty estimates for the waste generation variables.

The uncertainties in the waste incineration emission estimates arise from both the assumptions applied to the data and from the quality of the data. Key factors include MSW incineration rate; fraction oxidized; missing data on waste composition; average C content of waste components; assumptions on the synthetic/biogenic C ratio; and combustion conditions affecting N₂O emissions. The highest levels of uncertainty surround the variables that are based on assumptions (e.g., percent of clothing and footwear composed of synthetic rubber); the lowest levels of uncertainty surround variables that were determined by quantitative measurements (e.g., combustion efficiency, C content of C black).

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 3-27. Waste incineration CO₂ emissions in 2009 were estimated to be between 9.8 and 15.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 21 percent below to 24 percent above the 2009 emission estimate of 12.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. Also at a 95 percent confidence level, waste incineration N₂O emissions in 2009 were estimated to be between 0.2 and 1.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. This indicates a range of 51 percent below to 320 percent above the 2009 emission estimate of 0.4 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 3-27: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ and N₂O from the Incineration of Waste (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Incineration of Waste	CO ₂	12.3	9.8	15.2	-21%	+24%
Incineration of Waste	N ₂ O	0.4	0.2	1.5	-51%	+320%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990

through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A source-specific QA/QC plan was implemented for incineration of waste. This effort included a Tier 1 analysis, as well as portions of a Tier 2 analysis. The Tier 2 procedures that were implemented involved checks specifically focusing on the activity data and specifically focused on the emission factor and activity data sources and methodology used for estimating emissions from incineration of waste. Trends across the time series were analyzed to determine whether any corrective actions were needed. Actions were taken to streamline the activity data throughout the calculations on incineration of waste.

Recalculations Discussion

Several changes were made to input variables compared to the previous Inventory, resulting in an overall decrease in the total emissions from the incineration of waste. Formerly, the percentage of overall rubber waste that is synthetic (i.e., fossil-derived rather than biogenic) varied across the product categories, ranging from 25 percent for clothing and footwear to 100 percent synthetic rubber for durable goods and containers and packaging. For the current Inventory, this variable was updated to be 70 percent synthetic rubber for all four waste categories based on an industry average (RMA, 2011). This change resulted in an average 1 percent decrease in CO₂ emissions throughout the time series. In addition, the percentage of waste incinerated was updated for 2008 based on data obtained from The State of Garbage in America report (van Haaren et al., 2010). Because the report is released every other year, the percentage incinerated in 2007 was also updated using linear interpolation from the 2006 and 2008 values. The change in the percentage incinerated, along with the change in the percentage synthetic rubber noted above, decreased the 2007 and 2008 estimates by 4 percent and 7 percent, respectively, relative to the previous report.

Planned Improvements

Beginning in 2010, those facilities that emit over 25,000 tons of greenhouse gases (CO₂ Eq.) from stationary combustion across all sectors of the economy are required to calculate and report their greenhouse gas emissions to EPA through its Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program. These data will be used in future inventories to improve the emission calculations through the use of these collected higher tier methodological data.

Additional data sources for calculating the N₂O and CH₄ emission factors for U.S. incineration of waste may be investigated.

3.4. Coal Mining (IPCC Source Category 1B1a)

Three types of coal mining related activities release CH₄ to the atmosphere: underground mining, surface mining, and post-mining (i.e., coal-handling) activities. Underground coal mines contribute the largest share of CH₄ emissions. In 2009, 135 gassy underground coal mines in the United States employ ventilation systems to ensure that CH₄ levels remain within safe concentrations. These systems can exhaust significant amounts of CH₄ to the atmosphere in low concentrations. Additionally, 23 U.S. coal mines supplement ventilation systems with degasification systems. Degasification systems are wells drilled from the surface or boreholes drilled inside the mine that remove large volumes of CH₄ before, during, or after mining. In 2009, 14 coal mines collected CH₄ from degasification systems and utilized this gas, thus reducing emissions to the atmosphere. Of these mines, 13 coal mines sold CH₄ to the natural gas pipeline and one coal mine used CH₄ from its degasification system to heat mine ventilation air on site. In addition, one of the coal mines that sold gas to pipelines also used CH₄ to fuel a thermal coal dryer. Surface coal mines also release CH₄ as the overburden is removed and the coal is exposed, but the level of emissions is much lower than from underground mines. Finally, some of the CH₄ retained in the coal after mining is released during processing, storage, and transport of the coal.

Total CH₄ emissions in 2009 were estimated to be 71.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. (3,382 Gg), a decline of 16 percent since 1990 (see Table 3-28 and Table 3-29). Of this amount, underground mines accounted for 71 percent, surface mines accounted for 18 percent, and post-mining emissions accounted for 11 percent. The decline in CH₄ emissions from underground mines from 1996 to 2002 was the result of the reduction of overall coal production, the mining of less gassy coal, and an increase in CH₄ recovered and used. Since that time, underground coal production and the associated methane emissions have remained fairly level, while surface coal production and its associated emissions

have generally increased.

Table 3-28: CH₄ Emissions from Coal Mining (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Activity	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
UG Mining	62.3	39.4	35.0	35.7	35.7	44.4	50.4
Liberated	67.9	54.4	50.2	54.3	51.0	60.5	67.0
Recovered & Used	(5.6)	(14.9)	(15.1)	(18.7)	(15.3)	(16.1)	(16.5)
Surface Mining	12.0	12.3	13.3	14.0	13.8	14.3	12.9
Post-Mining (UG)	7.7	6.7	6.4	6.3	6.1	6.1	5.6
Post-Mining (Surface)	2.0	2.0	2.2	2.3	2.2	2.3	2.1
Total	84.1	60.4	56.9	58.2	57.9	67.1	71.0

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Parentheses indicate negative values.

Table 3-29: CH₄ Emissions from Coal Mining (Gg)

Activity	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
UG Mining	2,968	1,878	1,668	1,699	1,700	2,113	2,401
Liberated	3,234	2,588	2,389	2,588	2,427	2,881	3,189
Recovered & Used	(265.9)	(710.4)	(720.8)	(889.4)	(727.2)	(768.0)	(787.1)
Surface Mining	573.6	585.7	633.1	668.0	658.9	680.5	614.2
Post-Mining (UG)	368.3	318.1	305.9	298.5	289.6	292.0	266.7
Post-Mining (Surface)	93.2	95.2	102.9	108.5	107.1	110.6	99.8
Total	4,003	2,877	2,710	2,774	2,756	3,196	3,382

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Parentheses indicate negative values.

Methodology

The methodology for estimating CH₄ emissions from coal mining consists of two parts. The first part involves estimating CH₄ emissions from underground mines. Because of the availability of ventilation system measurements, underground mine emissions can be estimated on a mine-by-mine basis and then summed to determine total emissions. The second step involves estimating emissions from surface mines and post-mining activities by multiplying basin-specific coal production by basin-specific emission factors.

Underground mines. Total CH₄ emitted from underground mines was estimated as the sum of CH₄ liberated from ventilation systems and CH₄ liberated by means of degasification systems, minus CH₄ recovered and used. The Mine Safety and Health Administration (MSHA) samples CH₄ emissions from ventilation systems for all mines with detectable⁹⁵ CH₄ concentrations. These mine-by-mine measurements are used to estimate CH₄ emissions from ventilation systems.

Some of the higher-emitting underground mines also use degasification systems (e.g., wells or boreholes) that remove CH₄ before, during, or after mining. This CH₄ can then be collected for use or vented to the atmosphere. Various approaches were employed to estimate the quantity of CH₄ collected by each of the twenty mines using these systems, depending on available data. For example, some mines report to EPA the amount of CH₄ liberated from their degasification systems. For mines that sell recovered CH₄ to a pipeline, pipeline sales data published by state petroleum and natural gas agencies were used to estimate degasification emissions. For those mines for which no other data are available, default recovery efficiency values were developed, depending on the type of degasification system employed.

Finally, the amount of CH₄ recovered by degasification systems and then used (i.e., not vented) was estimated. In 2009, 13 active coal mines sold recovered CH₄ into the local gas pipeline networks and one coal mine used recovered CH₄ on site for heating. Emissions avoided for these projects were estimated using gas sales data reported by various state agencies. For most mines with recovery systems, companies and state agencies provided individual well production information, which was used to assign gas sales to a particular year. For the few remaining mines, coal mine operators supplied information regarding the number of years in advance of mining that gas recovery

⁹⁵ MSHA records coal mine CH₄ readings with concentrations of greater than 50 ppm (parts per million) CH₄. Readings below this threshold are considered non-detectable.

occurs.

Surface Mines and Post-Mining Emissions. Surface mining and post-mining CH₄ emissions were estimated by multiplying basin-specific coal production, obtained from the Energy Information Administration's Annual Coal Report (see Table 3-30) (EIA 2010), by basin-specific emission factors. Surface mining emission factors were developed by assuming that surface mines emit two times as much CH₄ as the average in situ CH₄ content of the coal. Revised data on in situ CH₄ content and emissions factors are taken from EPA (2005), EPA (1996), and AAPG (1984). This calculation accounts for CH₄ released from the strata surrounding the coal seam. For post-mining emissions, the emission factor was assumed to be 32.5 percent of the average in situ CH₄ content of coals mined in the basin.

Table 3-30: Coal Production (Thousand Metric Tons)

Year	Underground	Surface	Total
1990	384,244	546,808	931,052
2000	338,168	635,581	973,749
2005	334,398	691,448	1,025,846
2006	325,697	728,447	1,054,144
2007	319,139	720,023	1,039,162
2008	323,932	737,832	1,061,764
2009	301,241	671,475	972,716

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

A quantitative uncertainty analysis was conducted for the coal mining source category using the IPCC-recommended Tier 2 uncertainty estimation methodology. Because emission estimates from underground ventilation systems were based on actual measurement data, uncertainty is relatively low. A degree of imprecision was introduced because the measurements used were not continuous but rather an average of quarterly instantaneous readings. Additionally, the measurement equipment used can be expected to have resulted in an average of 10 percent overestimation of annual CH₄ emissions (Mutmanský and Wang 2000). Estimates of CH₄ recovered by degasification systems are relatively certain because many coal mine operators provided information on individual well gas sales and mined through dates. Many of the recovery estimates use data on wells within 100 feet of a mined area. Uncertainty also exists concerning the radius of influence of each well. The number of wells counted, and thus the avoided emissions, may vary if the drainage area is found to be larger or smaller than currently estimated.

Compared to underground mines, there is considerably more uncertainty associated with surface mining and post-mining emissions because of the difficulty in developing accurate emission factors from field measurements. However, since underground emissions comprise the majority of total coal mining emissions, the uncertainty associated with underground emissions is the primary factor that determines overall uncertainty. The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 3-31. Coal mining CH₄ emissions in 2009 were estimated to be between 62.0 and 82.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 12.7 percent below to 16.1 percent above the 2009 emission estimate of 71.0 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 3-31: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ Emissions from Coal Mining (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Coal Mining	CH ₄	71.0	62.0	82.4	-12.7%	+16.1%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Recalculations Discussion

For the current Inventory, there were some changes to pre-2009 emission estimates relative to the previous Inventory. For the current Inventory, the conversion factor for converting short tons to metric tons was updated to 0.90718474 to be consistent with the number of significant digits used in other source categories. In the past, 0.9072 had been used. The factor was updated for all years, thus coal production estimates in Table 3-31 have changed slightly.

Other changes include the recalculation of emissions avoided for two Jim Walter Resources (JWR) mines: Blue Creek #4 Mine and Blue Creek #7 Mine. This resulted in changes to emissions avoided numbers for 2007 and 2008.

In 1998, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003, and 2004, the emissions avoided for the Blacksville No. 2 mine in West Virginia were assigned to Pennsylvania rather than West Virginia. These emissions avoided were correctly assigned to West Virginia in the current Inventory; however, total emissions were not affected.

The emissions avoided for the Emerald and Cumberland mines were adjusted going back to 2006 based on information provided by the project developer.

3.5. Abandoned Underground Coal Mines (IPCC Source Category 1B1a)

Underground coal mines contribute the largest share of CH₄ emissions, with active underground mines the leading source of underground emissions. However, mines also continue to release CH₄ after closure. As mines mature and coal seams are mined through, mines are closed and abandoned. Many are sealed and some flood through intrusion of groundwater or surface water into the void. Shafts or portals are generally filled with gravel and capped with a concrete seal, while vent pipes and boreholes are plugged in a manner similar to oil and gas wells. Some abandoned mines are vented to the atmosphere to prevent the buildup of CH₄ that may find its way to surface structures through overburden fractures. As work stops within the mines, the CH₄ liberation decreases but it does not stop completely. Following an initial decline, abandoned mines can liberate CH₄ at a near-steady rate over an extended period of time, or, if flooded, produce gas for only a few years. The gas can migrate to the surface through the conduits described above, particularly if they have not been sealed adequately. In addition, diffuse emissions can occur when CH₄ migrates to the surface through cracks and fissures in the strata overlying the coal mine. The following factors influence abandoned mine emissions:

- Time since abandonment;
- Gas content and adsorption characteristics of coal;
- CH₄ flow capacity of the mine;
- Mine flooding;
- Presence of vent holes; and
- Mine seals.

Gross abandoned mine CH₄ emissions ranged from 6.0 to 9.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. from 1990 through 2009, varying, in general, by less than 1 to approximately 19 percent from year to year. Fluctuations were due mainly to the number of mines closed during a given year as well as the magnitude of the emissions from those mines when active. Gross abandoned mine emissions peaked in 1996 (9.1 Tg CO₂ Eq.) due to the large number of mine closures from 1994 to 1996 (70 gassy mines closed during the three-year period). In spite of this rapid rise, abandoned mine emissions have been generally on the decline since 1996. There were fewer than fifteen gassy mine closures during each of the years from 1998 through 2009, with only ten closures in 2009. By 2009, gross abandoned mine emissions decreased slightly to 8.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (see Table 3-32 and Table 3-33). Gross emissions are reduced by CH₄ recovered and used at 38 mines, resulting in net emissions in 2009 of 5.5 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 3-32: CH₄ Emissions from Abandoned Coal Mines (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Activity	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Abandoned Underground Mines	6.0	8.9	7.0	7.6	8.9	9.0	8.5
Recovered & Used	0.0	1.5	1.5	2.2	3.3	3.2	3.0
Total	6.0	7.4	5.5	5.5	5.6	5.9	5.5

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-33: CH₄ Emissions from Abandoned Coal Mines (Gg)

Activity	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Abandoned Underground Mines	288	422	334	364	425	430	406
Recovered & Used	0	72	70	103	158	150	144
Total	288	350	264	261	267	279	262

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

Estimating CH₄ emissions from an abandoned coal mine requires predicting the emissions of a mine from the time of abandonment through the inventory year of interest. The flow of CH₄ from the coal to the mine void is primarily dependent on the mine's emissions when active and the extent to which the mine is flooded or sealed. The CH₄ emission rate before abandonment reflects the gas content of the coal, rate of coal mining, and the flow capacity of the mine in much the same way as the initial rate of a water-free conventional gas well reflects the gas content of the producing formation and the flow capacity of the well. A well or a mine which produces gas from a coal seam and the surrounding strata will produce less gas through time as the reservoir of gas is depleted. Depletion of a reservoir will follow a predictable pattern depending on the interplay of a variety of natural physical conditions imposed on the reservoir. The depletion of a reservoir is commonly modeled by mathematical equations and mapped as a type curve. Type curves which are referred to as decline curves have been developed for abandoned coal mines. Existing data on abandoned mine emissions through time, although sparse, appear to fit the hyperbolic type of decline curve used in forecasting production from natural gas wells.

In order to estimate CH₄ emissions over time for a given mine, it is necessary to apply a decline function, initiated upon abandonment, to that mine. In the analysis, mines were grouped by coal basin with the assumption that they will generally have the same initial pressures, permeability and isotherm. As CH₄ leaves the system, the reservoir pressure, *P_r*, declines as described by the isotherm. The emission rate declines because the mine pressure (*P_w*) is essentially constant at atmospheric pressure, for a vented mine, and the *PI* term is essentially constant at the pressures of interest (atmospheric to 30 psia). A rate-time equation can be generated that can be used to predict future emissions. This decline through time is hyperbolic in nature and can be empirically expressed as:

$$q = q_i (1 + bD_i t)^{-1/b}$$

where,

- q* = Gas rate at time *t* in mmcf/d
- q_i* = Initial gas rate at time zero (*t₀*) in million cubic feet per day mmcf/d
- b* = The hyperbolic exponent, dimensionless
- D_i* = Initial decline rate, 1/yr
- t* = Elapsed time from *t₀* (years)

This equation is applied to mines of various initial emission rates that have similar initial pressures, permeability and adsorption isotherms (EPA 2003).

The decline curves created to model the gas emission rate of coal mines must account for factors that decrease the rate of emission after mining activities cease, such as sealing and flooding. Based on field measurement data, it was assumed that most U.S. mines prone to flooding will become completely flooded within eight years and therefore no longer have any measurable CH₄ emissions. Based on this assumption, an average decline rate for flooding mines was established by fitting a decline curve to emissions from field measurements. An exponential equation was developed from emissions data measured at eight abandoned mines known to be filling with water located in two of the five basins. Using a least squares, curve-fitting algorithm, emissions data were matched to the exponential equation shown below. There was not enough data to establish basin-specific equations as was done with the vented, non-flooding mines (EPA 2003).

$$q = q_{ie}^{(-Dt)}$$

where,

- q* = Gas flow rate at time *t* in mcf/d
- q_i* = Initial gas flow rate at time zero (*t₀*) in mcf/d

D = Decline rate, 1/yr
t = Elapsed time from t₀ (years)

Seals have an inhibiting effect on the rate of flow of CH₄ into the atmosphere compared to the rate that would be emitted if the mine had an open vent. The total volume emitted will be the same, but will occur over a longer period. The methodology, therefore, treats the emissions prediction from a sealed mine similar to emissions from a vented mine, but uses a lower initial rate depending on the degree of sealing. The computational fluid dynamics simulator was again used with the conceptual abandoned mine model to predict the decline curve for inhibited flow. The percent sealed is defined as $100 \times (1 - (\text{initial emissions from sealed mine} / \text{emission rate at abandonment prior to sealing}))$. Significant differences are seen between 50 percent, 80 percent and 95 percent closure. These decline curves were therefore used as the high, middle, and low values for emissions from sealed mines (EPA 2003).

For active coal mines, those mines producing over 100 mcf/d account for 98 percent of all CH₄ emissions. This same relationship is assumed for abandoned mines. It was determined that 469 abandoned mines closing after 1972 produced emissions greater than 100 mcf/d when active. Further, the status of 273 of the 469 mines (or 58 percent) is known to be either: (1) vented to the atmosphere; (2) sealed to some degree (either earthen or concrete seals); or, (3) flooded (enough to inhibit CH₄ flow to the atmosphere). The remaining 42 percent of the mines were placed in one of the three categories by applying a probability distribution analysis based on the known status of other mines located in the same coal basin (EPA 2003).

Table 3-34: Number of gassy abandoned mines occurring in U.S. basins grouped by class according to post-abandonment state

Basin	Sealed	Vented	Flooded	Total Known	Unknown	Total Mines
Central Appl.	25	25	48	98	127	224
Illinois	30	3	14	47	25	72
Northern Appl.	42	22	16	80	35	115
Warrior Basin	0	0	16	16	0	16
Western Basins	27	3	2	32	9	41
Total	124	53	96	273	196	469

Inputs to the decline equation require the average emission rate and the date of abandonment. Generally this data is available for mines abandoned after 1972; however, such data are largely unknown for mines closed before 1972. Information that is readily available such as coal production by state and county are helpful, but do not provide enough data to directly employ the methodology used to calculate emissions from mines abandoned after 1971. It is assumed that pre-1972 mines are governed by the same physical, geologic, and hydrologic constraints that apply to post-1972 mines; thus, their emissions may be characterized by the same decline curves.

During the 1970s, 78 percent of CH₄ emissions from coal mining came from seventeen counties in seven states. In addition, mine closure dates were obtained for two states, Colorado and Illinois, for the hundred year period extending from 1900 through 1999. The data were used to establish a frequency of mine closure histogram (by decade) and applied to the other five states with gassy mine closures. As a result, basin-specific decline curve equations were applied to 145 gassy coal mines estimated to have closed between 1920 and 1971 in the United States, representing 78 percent of the emissions. State-specific, initial emission rates were used based on average coal mine CH₄ emission rates during the 1970s (EPA 2003).

Abandoned mines emission estimates are based on all closed mines known to have active mine CH₄ ventilation emission rates greater than 100 mcf/d at the time of abandonment. For example, for 1990 the analysis included 145 mines closed before 1972 and 258 mines closed between 1972 and 1990. Initial emission rates based on MSHA reports, time of abandonment, and basin-specific decline curves influenced by a number of factors were used to calculate annual emissions for each mine in the database. Coal mine degasification data are not available for years prior to 1990, thus the initial emission rates used reflect ventilation emissions only for pre-1990 closures. CH₄ degasification amounts were added to the quantity of CH₄ ventilated for the total CH₄ liberation rate for 21 mines that closed between 1992 and 2009. Since the sample of gassy mines (with active mine emissions greater than 100 mcf/d) is assumed to account for 78 percent of the pre-1971 and 98 percent of the post-1971 abandoned mine emissions, the modeled results were multiplied by 1.22 and 1.02 to account for all U.S. abandoned mine emissions.

From 1993 through 2009, emission totals were downwardly adjusted to reflect abandoned mine CH₄ emissions

avoided from those mines. The inventory totals were not adjusted for abandoned mine reductions in 1990 through 1992, because no data was reported for abandoned coal mining CH₄ recovery projects during that time.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

A quantitative uncertainty analysis was conducted to estimate the uncertainty surrounding the estimates of emissions from abandoned underground coal mines. The uncertainty analysis described below provides for the specification of probability density functions for key variables within a computational structure that mirrors the calculation of the inventory estimate. The results provide the range within which, with 95 percent certainty, emissions from this source category are likely to fall.

As discussed above, the parameters for which values must be estimated for each mine in order to predict its decline curve are: (1) the coal's adsorption isotherm; (2) CH₄ flow capacity as expressed by permeability; and (3) pressure at abandonment. Because these parameters are not available for each mine, a methodological approach to estimating emissions was used that generates a probability distribution of potential outcomes based on the most likely value and the probable range of values for each parameter. The range of values is not meant to capture the extreme values, but values that represent the highest and lowest quartile of the cumulative probability density function of each parameter. Once the low, mid, and high values are selected, they are applied to a probability density function.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 3-35. Abandoned coal mines CH₄ emissions in 2009 were estimated to be between 4.0 and 7.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 27 percent below to 32 percent above the 2009 emission estimate of 5.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. One of the reasons for the relatively narrow range is that mine-specific data is used in the methodology. The largest degree of uncertainty is associated with the unknown status mines (which account for 42 percent of the mines), with a ± 57 percent uncertainty.

Table 3-35: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ Emissions from Abandoned Underground Coal Mines (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Abandoned Underground Coal Mines	CH ₄	5.5	4.0	7.3	-27%	+32%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Recalculations Discussion

Changes in pre-2009 emissions avoided relative to the previous Inventory are due to the additions of pre-1972 Grayson Hills Energy and DTE Corinth projects, which were added to the current inventory. There were also two abandoned mines added to the current Inventory, one abandoned in 2007 and one in 2008, which resulted in changes in the liberated emissions relative to the previous report.

3.6. Natural Gas Systems (IPCC Source Category 1B2b)

The U.S. natural gas system encompasses hundreds of thousands of wells, hundreds of processing facilities, and over a million miles of transmission and distribution pipelines. Overall, natural gas systems emitted 221.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (10,535 Gg) of CH₄ in 2009, a 17 percent increase over 1990 emissions (see Table 3-36 and Table 3-37), and 32.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (32,171 Gg) of non-combustion CO₂ in 2009, a 14 percent decrease over 1990 emissions (see Table 3-38 and Table 3-39). Improvements in management practices and technology, along with the replacement of older equipment, have helped to stabilize emissions. Methane emissions increased since 2008 due to an increase in production and production wells.

CH₄ and non-combustion CO₂ emissions from natural gas systems are generally process related, with normal operations, routine maintenance, and system upsets being the primary contributors. Emissions from normal operations include: natural gas engines and turbine uncombusted exhaust, bleed and discharge emissions from pneumatic devices, and fugitive emissions from system components. Routine maintenance emissions originate from

pipelines, equipment, and wells during repair and maintenance activities. Pressure surge relief systems and accidents can lead to system upset emissions. Below is a characterization of the four major stages of the natural gas system. Each of the stages is described and the different factors affecting CH₄ and non-combustion CO₂ emissions are discussed.

Field Production. In this initial stage, wells are used to withdraw raw gas from underground formations. Emissions arise from the wells themselves, gathering pipelines, and well-site gas treatment facilities such as dehydrators and separators. Emissions from pneumatic devices, well clean-ups, and gas well completions and re-completions with hydraulic fracturing account for the majority of CH₄ emissions. Flaring emissions account for the majority of the non-combustion CO₂ emissions. Emissions from field production accounted for approximately 59 percent of CH₄ emissions and about 34 percent of non-combustion CO₂ emissions from natural gas systems in 2009.

Processing. In this stage, natural gas and various other constituents from the raw gas are removed, resulting in “pipeline quality” gas, which is injected into the transmission system. Fugitive CH₄ emissions from compressors, including compressor seals, are the primary emission source from this stage. The majority of non-combustion CO₂ emissions come from acid gas removal units, which are designed to remove CO₂ from natural gas. Processing plants account for about 8 percent of CH₄ emissions and approximately 66 percent of non-combustion CO₂ emissions from natural gas systems.

Transmission and Storage. Natural gas transmission involves the movement of gas through pipelines, and storage involves the injection and withdrawal of gas from underground formations or above-ground tanks.

from these compressor stations and from metering and regulating stations account for the majority of the CH₄ emissions from this stage. Pneumatic devices and engine uncombusted exhaust are also sources of CH₄ emissions from transmission facilities.

Natural gas is also injected and stored in underground formations, or liquefied and stored in above ground tanks, during periods of low demand (e.g., summer), and withdrawn, processed, and distributed during periods of high demand (e.g., winter). Compressors and dehydrators are the primary contributors to emissions from these storage facilities. CH₄ emissions from the transmission and storage sector account for approximately 20 percent of emissions from natural gas systems, while CO₂ emissions from transmission and storage account for less than 1 percent of the non-combustion CO₂ emissions from natural gas systems.

Distribution. Distribution pipelines take the high-pressure gas from the transmission system at “city gate” stations, reduce the pressure and distribute the gas through primarily underground mains and service lines to individual end

Distribution	1,591		1,497		1,395	1,346	1,402	1,423	1,381
Total	9,038		9,968		9,069	10,364	9,771	10,087	10,535

*Including CH₄ emission reductions achieved by the Natural Gas STAR program and NESHAP regulations.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-38: Non-combustion CO₂ Emissions from Natural Gas Systems (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Stage	1990		2000		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Field Production	9.7		6.4						

not common at the time the EPA/GRI survey was conducted. Since then, emissions data has become available through Natural Gas STAR experiences and presentations (EPA 2004, 2007) as these activities became more prevalent. The EPA/GRI study and previous Inventories did, however, include an estimate for well completions without hydraulic fracturing under the source category Completion Flaring. The changes for gas well cleanups, condensate storage tanks, centrifugal compressors, and gas well completions and gas well workovers (re-completions) with hydraulic fracturing are described below in the Recalculations section. See Annex 3.4 for more detailed information on the methodology and data used to calculate CH₄ and non-combustion CO₂ emissions from natural gas systems.

Activity factor data were taken from the following sources: American Gas Association (AGA 1991–1998); Bureau of Ocean Energy Management, Regulation and Enforcement (previous Minerals and Management Service) (BOEMRE 2010a-d); Monthly Energy Review (EIA 2010f); Natural Gas Liquids Reserves Report (EIA 2005); Natural Gas Monthly (EIA 2010b,c,e); the Natural Gas STAR Program annual emissions savings (EPA 2010); Oil and Gas Journal (OGJ 1997–2010); Office of Pipeline Safety (OPS 2010a-b); Federal Energy Regulatory Commission (FERC 2010) and other Energy Information Administration publications (EIA 2001, 2004, 2010a,d); World Oil Magazine (2010a-b). Data for estimating emissions from hydrocarbon production tanks were incorporated (EPA 1999). Coalbed CH₄ well activity factors were taken from the Wyoming Oil and Gas Conservation Commission (Wyoming 2009) and the Alabama State Oil and Gas Board (Alabama 2010). Other state well data was taken from: American Association of Petroleum Geologists (AAPG 2004); Brookhaven College (Brookhaven 2004); Kansas Geological Survey (Kansas 2010); Montana Board of Oil and Gas Conservation (Montana 2010); Oklahoma Geological Survey (Oklahoma 2010); Morgan Stanley (Morgan Stanley 2005); Rocky Mountain Production Report (Lippman 2003); New Mexico Oil Conservation Division (New Mexico 2010, 2005); Texas Railroad Commission (Texas 2010a-d); Utah Division of Oil, Gas and Mining (Utah 2010). Emission factors were taken from EPA/GRI (1996). GTI's Unconventional Natural Gas and Gas Composition Databases (GTI 2001) were used to adapt the CH₄ emission factors into non-combustion related CO₂ emission factors and adjust CH₄ emission factors from the EPA/GRI survey. Methane compositions from GTI 2001 are adjusted year to year using gross production by NEMS for oil and gas supply regions from the EIA. Therefore, emission factors may vary from year to year due to slight changes in the methane composition for each NEMS oil and gas supply module region. Additional information about CO₂ content in transmission quality natural gas was obtained via the internet from numerous U.S. transmission companies to help further develop the non-combustion CO₂ emission factors.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

A quantitative uncertainty analysis was conducted to determine the level of uncertainty surrounding estimates of emissions from natural gas systems. Performed using @RISK software and the IPCC-recommended Tier 2 methodology (Monte Carlo Simulation technique), this analysis provides for the specification of probability density functions for key variables within a computational structure that mirrors the calculation of the inventory estimate. The @RISK model utilizes 1992 (base year) emissions to quantify the uncertainty associated with the emissions estimates using the top twelve emission sources for the year 2009.

The results presented below provide with 95 percent certainty the range within which emissions from this source category are likely to fall for the year 2009. The heterogeneous nature of the natural gas industry makes it difficult to sample facilities that are completely representative of the entire industry. Because of this, scaling up from model facilities introduces a degree of uncertainty. Additionally, highly variable emission rates were measured among many system components, making the calculated average emission rates uncertain. The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 3-40. Natural gas systems CH₄ emissions in 2009 were estimated to be between 179.1 and 287.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. Natural gas systems non-energy CO₂ emissions in 2009 were estimated to be between 26.1 and 41.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. at 95 percent confidence level.

Table 3-40: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ and Non-energy CO₂ Emissions from Natural Gas Systems (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.) ^c	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound ^c	Upper Bound ^c	Lower Bound ^c	Upper Bound ^c

Natural Gas Systems	CH ₄	221.2	179.1	287.6	-19%	+30%
Natural Gas Systems ^b	CO ₂	32.2	26.1	41.9	-19%	+30%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

^b An uncertainty analysis for the non-energy CO₂ emissions was not performed. The relative uncertainty estimated (expressed as a percent) from the CH₄ uncertainty analysis was applied to the point estimate of non-energy CO₂ emissions.

^c All reported values are rounded after calculation. As a result, lower and upper bounds may not be duplicable from other rounded values as shown in table.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification Discussion

A number of potential data sources were investigated to improve selected emission factors in the natural gas industry. First, the HPDI database for well production and well properties was investigated for potential engineering parameters to be used in engineering equations to develop a new emission factor for well cleanups (HPDI 2009). The database was queried to obtain average well depth, shut-in pressure, well counts, and well production from each basin. These parameters were used along with industry experiences to develop an engineering estimate of emissions from each well in each basin of the sample data. The analysis led to a new emission factor for the gas well cleanup source.

Additionally, industry experiences with hydraulic fracturing of tight formations for the completion or workover of natural gas wells were reviewed to account for this source of emissions. Several Partners of the Natural Gas STAR Program have reported recovering substantial volumes of natural gas that would have otherwise been vented following completions or re-completions (workovers) involving hydraulic fracturing. This completion method, which is a large emission source, was not characterized by the base EPA/GRI 1996 study and has not been accounted for in the national Inventory until this year.

A World Gas Conference paper (WGC 2009) gathered 48 sample measurements of centrifugal compressor wet seal oil degassing emissions and published the results. The base year EPA/GRI 1996 study did not measure emissions from the seal oil degassing vent. Instead seal face emissions were quantified and as such this emission source has gone uncharacterized in the national Inventory until this year.

In some production areas the separator liquid level may drop too low such that the produced associated gas blows through the dump valve and vents through the storage tank. These data were included where available for the Inventory. More data will be necessary to potentially separate this source from storage tank flashing emissions and also to represent the true scope of activity across the United States.

A number of other data sources for fugitive emission factors from the processing and transmission and storage segments were reviewed. Several studies have been published since the EPA/GRI 1996 base year study that sample emissions from the same common equipment components. The raw emissions data from these surveys can potentially be combined with the raw data from the base year study to develop stronger emission factors. In addition to common component leaks, several of these studies propose emission factors for pneumatic devices or other sources. These studies require further review and thus the data are not included in the Inventory at this time.

Recalculations Discussion

Methodologies for gas well cleanups and condensate storage tanks were revised for the current Inventory, and new sources of data for centrifugal compressors with wet seals, gas well completions with hydraulic fracturing, and gas well workovers with hydraulic fracturing were used.

The largest increase in emissions relative to the previous Inventory was due to the revised emission factor for gas well cleanups (also referred to in industry as gas well liquids unloading). HPDI well production and well property sample data on well depth, shut-in pressure, and production rates were used in an engineering equation to re-estimate the average unloading emissions by NEMS oil and gas module region for this source (HPDI 2009). This methodological change increased emissions by more than 22 times while decreasing the substantial uncertainty that was associated with the previous emission factor from the EPA/GRI 1996 study. The activity data remained the same as the previous methodology. Emissions from non-Gas STAR Partners were not considered, nor was an independent estimate of the scope of those emissions accounted for. Reductions beyond those reported from Natural

Gas STAR Partners will be considered for inclusion in the next Inventory of sufficient data are available.

The next largest increase in emissions was due to the inclusion of gas well completions and workovers involving hydraulic fracture (i.e. unconventional completions and workovers). The EPA/GRI 1996 study did not account for this emerging technology and the source was previously unaccounted for in the Inventory. The Inventory did account for completion flaring, however, this only includes emissions from completions without hydraulic fracturing (i.e. conventional completions), which the EPA/GRI 1996 study assumes are mostly flared. Unlike completions and workovers without hydraulic fracturing (i.e. conventional workovers), the high pressure venting of gas in order to expel the large volumes of liquid used to fracture the well formation, results in a large emission of natural gas. The Inventory tracks activity data for wells completed with hydraulic fracturing in each region. The gas well completions with hydraulic fracturing was approximated using total number of producing gas wells completed with hydraulic fracturing and the total number of shut-in gas wells completed with hydraulic fracturing from each year. This approximation is made by taking the difference between the number of unconventional wells reported by EIA for the current year and the previous year. Since drilling and hydraulic fracturing in unconventional (e.g. shale, tight, and coal bed methane) formations is a relatively new technology, it is assumed that zero gas wells completed with hydraulic fracturing are shut-in each year. This activity data was used along with a newly developed emission factor to estimate emissions from these sources. It was assumed that approximately 50 percent of emissions from gas well completions and workovers with hydraulic fracturing would be flared due to states such as Wyoming that do not permit the venting of natural gas during well completions.

The same E&P Tank simulation data for hydrocarbon liquids above 45° API flashing emission in tanks was used as in previous Inventories to estimate emissions from condensate tanks; however, these flashing emissions simulations were coupled with a large sample of condensate production gravities from the HPDI database to improve the factor to account for the average national distribution of condensate gravities. Previously, a simple average of simulation results for each liquid gravity was used. Additionally, the TERC (2009) study provided a small sample of data representing two regions in Texas where separator dump valve malfunctions were detected and measured. This data was applied only to the regions represented by the study to account for this emission source.

Finally, WGC (2009) sample data on centrifugal compressor seal oil degassing vent rates was used to divide the centrifugal compressors source in the processing and transmission and storage segments into two sources—centrifugal compressors equipped with wet seals and centrifugal compressors equipped with dry seals. The seal oil degassing vent (found with compressors using wet seals) was previously unaccounted for in the Inventory. This improved methodology accounted for an increase in emissions from these sources between 50 and 100 percent.

Finally, the previous Inventory activity data are updated with revised values each year. However, the impact of these changes was small compared to the changes described above.

The net effect of these changes was to increase total CH₄ emissions from natural gas systems between 47 and 120 percent each year between 1990 and 2008 relative to the previous report. The natural gas production segment accounted for the largest increases, largely due to the methodological changes to gas well cleanups and the addition of gas well completions and workovers with hydraulic fracturing.

Planned Improvements

Emission reductions reported to Natural Gas STAR are deducted from the total sector emissions each year in the natural gas systems inventory model to estimate emissions. These reported reductions often rely on Inventory emission factors to quantify the extent of reductions. These reductions are also a source of uncertainty that is not currently analyzed in the Inventory. Emissions reductions—in particular from gas well cleanups—may be underestimated, and we intend to investigate whether additional data are available, and if appropriate, revisions to more accurately account for emissions from natural gas systems will be incorporated into future inventories. Additionally, accounting for the uncertainty of these reductions to more accurately provide upper and lower bounds within the 95 percent confidence interval, will be investigated.

Separately, a larger study is currently underway to update selected compressor emission factors used in the national inventory. Most of the activity factors and emission factors in the natural gas inventory are from the EPA/GRI (1996) study. The current measurement-based study to develop updated emission factors for compressors is intended to better reflect current national circumstances. Results from these studies are expected in 2011, and will be incorporated into the Inventory, pending a peer review.

Malfunctioning separator dump valves is not an occurrence isolated to the Texas counties in which the sample data was obtained. New data will be reviewed as it becomes available on this emissions source and emissions will be updated, as appropriate.

Data collected through EPA's Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program (40 CFR Part 98, Mandatory Reporting of Greenhouse Gases; Final Rule, Subpart W) will be reviewed for potential improvements to the natural gas systems emissions estimates. The rule will collect actual activity data using improved quantification methods from those used in several of the studies which form the basis of this Inventory. Data collection for Subpart W began January 1, 2011 with emissions reporting beginning in 2012. These base year 2011 data will be reviewed for inclusion into a future Inventory to improve the accuracy and reduce the uncertainty of the emission estimates.

3.7. Petroleum Systems (IPCC Source Category 1B2a)

CH₄ emissions from petroleum systems are primarily associated with crude oil production, transportation, and refining operations. During each of these activities, CH₄ emissions are released to the atmosphere as fugitive emissions, vented emissions, emissions from operational upsets, and emissions from fuel combustion. Fugitive and vented CO₂ emissions from petroleum systems are primarily associated with crude oil production and refining operations but are negligible in transportation operations. Combusted CO₂ emissions from fuels are already accounted for in the Fossil Fuels Combustion source category, and hence have not been taken into account in the Petroleum Systems source category. Total CH₄ and CO₂ emissions from petroleum systems in 2009 were 30.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1,473 Gg CH₄) and 0.5 Tg CO₂ (463 Gg), respectively. Since 1990, CH₄ emissions have declined by 13 percent, due to industry efforts to reduce emissions and a decline in domestic oil production (see Table 3-41 and Table 3-42). CO₂ emissions have also declined by 17 percent since 1990 due to similar reasons (see Table 3-43 and Table 3-44).

Production Field Operations. Production field operations account for about 98 percent of total CH₄ emissions from petroleum systems. Vented CH₄ from field operations account for over 90 percent of the emissions from the production sector, unburned CH₄ combustion emissions account for 6.4 percent, fugitive emissions are 3.4 percent, and process upset emissions are slightly under two-tenths of a percent. The most dominant sources of emissions, in order of magnitude, are shallow water offshore oil platforms, natural-gas-powered high bleed pneumatic devices, oil tanks, natural-gas powered low bleed pneumatic devices, gas engines, deep water offshore platforms, and chemical injection pumps. These seven sources alone emit about 94 percent of the production field operations emissions. Offshore platform emissions are a combination of fugitive, vented, and unburned fuel combustion emissions from all equipment housed on oil platforms producing oil and associated gas. Emissions from high and low-bleed pneumatics occur when pressurized gas that is used for control devices is bled to the atmosphere as they cycle open and closed to modulate the system. Emissions from oil tanks occur when the CH₄ entrained in crude oil under pressure volatilizes once the crude oil is put into storage tanks at atmospheric pressure. Emissions from gas engines are due to unburned CH₄ that vents with the exhaust. Emissions from chemical injection pumps are due to the 25 percent that use associated gas to drive pneumatic pumps. The remaining six percent of the emissions are distributed among 26 additional activities within the four categories: vented, fugitive, combustion and process upset emissions. For more detailed, source-level data on CH₄ emissions in production field operations, refer to Annex 3.5.

Vented CO₂ associated with natural gas emissions from field operations account for 99 percent of the total CO₂ emissions from this source category, while fugitive and process upsets together account for less than 1 percent of the emissions. The most dominant sources of vented emissions are oil tanks, high bleed pneumatic devices, shallow water offshore oil platforms, low bleed pneumatic devices, and chemical injection pumps. These five sources together account for 98.5 percent of the non-combustion CO₂ emissions from this source category, while the remaining 1.5 percent of the emissions is distributed among 24 additional activities within the three categories: vented, fugitive and process upsets.

Crude Oil Transportation. Crude oil transportation activities account for less than one half of one percent of total CH₄ emissions from the oil industry. Venting from tanks and marine vessel loading operations accounts for 61 percent of CH₄ emissions from crude oil transportation. Fugitive emissions, almost entirely from floating roof tanks, account for 19 percent. The remaining 20 percent is distributed among six additional sources within these two categories. Emissions from pump engine drivers and heaters were not estimated due to lack of data.

Crude Oil Refining. Crude oil refining processes and systems account for slightly less than two percent of total CH₄ emissions from the oil industry because most of the CH₄ in crude oil is removed or escapes before the crude oil is delivered to the refineries. There is an insignificant amount of CH₄ in all refined products. Within refineries, vented

emissions account for about 86 percent of the emissions, while both fugitive and combustion emissions account for approximately seven percent each. Refinery system blowdowns for maintenance and the process of asphalt blowing—with air, to harden the asphalt—are the primary venting contributors. Most of the fugitive CH₄ emissions from refineries are from leaks in the fuel gas system. Refinery combustion emissions include small amounts of unburned CH₄ in process heater stack emissions and unburned CH₄ in engine exhausts and flares.

Asphalt blowing from crude oil refining accounts for 36 percent of the total non-combustion CO₂ emissions in petroleum systems.

Table 3-41: CH₄ Emissions from Petroleum Systems (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Activity	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Production Field Operations	34.7	30.8	28.7	28.7	29.3	29.6	30.3
Pneumatic device venting	10.3	9.0	8.4	8.3	8.4	8.7	8.8
Tank venting	5.3	4.5	3.9	3.9	4.0	4.0	4.5
Combustion & process upsets	1.9	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	2.0
Misc. venting & fugitives	16.8	15.3	14.5	14.6	15.0	14.8	14.6
Wellhead fugitives	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5
Crude Oil Transportation	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Refining	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5
Total	35.4	31.5	29.4	29.4	30.0	30.2	30.9

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-42: CH₄ Emissions from Petroleum Systems (Gg)

Activity	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Production Field Operations	1,653	1,468	1,366	1,365	1,396	1,409	1,444
Pneumatic device venting	489	428	397	396	398	416	419
Tank venting	250	214	187	188	192	189	212
Combustion & process upsets	88	76	71	71	72	75	94
Misc. venting & fugitives	799	727	691	693	714	707	696
Wellhead fugitives	26	22	19	17	20	23	23
Crude Oil Transportation	7	5	5	5	5	5	5
Refining	25	28	28	28	27	25	24
Total	1,685	1,501	1,398	1,398	1,427	1,439	1,473

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-43: CO₂ Emissions from Petroleum Systems (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Activity	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Production Field Operations	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Pneumatic device venting	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Tank venting	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3
Misc. venting & fugitives	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Wellhead fugitives	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Crude Refining	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
Total	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-44: CO₂ Emissions from Petroleum Systems (Gg)

Activity	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Production Field Operations	376	323	285	285	292	288	319
Pneumatic device venting	27	24	22	22	22	23	23
Tank venting	328	281	246	246	252	247	278
Misc. venting & fugitives	18	17	16	16	16	16	16
Wellhead fugitives	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Crude Refining	180	211	205	203	182	165	144
Total	555	534	490	488	474	453	463

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

The methodology for estimating CH₄ emissions from petroleum systems is a bottom-up approach, based on comprehensive studies of CH₄ emissions from U.S. petroleum systems (EPA 1996, EPA 1999). These studies combined emission estimates from 64 activities occurring in petroleum systems from the oil wellhead through crude oil refining, including 33 activities for crude oil production field operations, 11 for crude oil transportation activities, and 20 for refining operations. Annex 3.5 provides greater detail on the emission estimates for these 64 activities. The estimates of CH₄ emissions from petroleum systems do not include emissions downstream of oil refineries because these emissions are negligible.

The methodology for estimating CH₄ emissions from the 64 oil industry activities employs emission factors initially developed by EPA (1999). Activity factors for the years 1990 through 2009 were collected from a wide variety of statistical resources. Emissions are estimated for each activity by multiplying emission factors (e.g., emission rate per equipment item or per activity) by their corresponding activity factor (e.g., equipment count or frequency of activity). EPA (1999) provides emission factors for all activities except those related to offshore oil production and field storage tanks. For offshore oil production, two emission factors were calculated using data collected over a one-year period for all federal offshore platforms (EPA 2005, BOEMRE 2004). One emission factor is for oil platforms in shallow water, and one emission factor is for oil platforms in deep water. Emission factors are held constant for the period 1990 through 2009. The number of platforms in shallow water and the number of platforms in deep water are used as activity factors and are taken from Bureau of Ocean Energy Management, Regulation, and Enforcement (BOEMRE) (formerly Minerals Management Service) statistics (BOEMRE 2010a-c). For oil storage tanks, the emissions factor was calculated as the total emissions per barrel of crude charge from E&P Tank data weighted by the distribution of produced crude oil gravities from the HPDI production database (EPA 1999, HPDI 2009).

For some years, complete activity factor data were not available. In such cases, one of three approaches was employed. Where appropriate, the activity factor was calculated from related statistics using ratios developed for EPA (1996). For example, EPA (1996) found that the number of heater treaters (a source of CH₄ emissions) is related to both number of producing wells and annual production. To estimate the activity factor for heater treaters, reported statistics for wells and production were used, along with the ratios developed for EPA (1996). In other cases, the activity factor was held constant from 1990 through 2009 based on EPA (1999). Lastly, the previous year's data were used when data for the current year were unavailable. The CH₄ and CO₂ sources in the production sector share common activity factors. See Annex 3.5 for additional detail.

Among the more important references used to obtain activity factors are the Energy Information Administration annual and monthly reports (EIA 1990 through 2010, 1995 through 2010, 1995 through 2010a-b), Methane Emissions from the Natural Gas Industry by the Gas Research Institute and EPA (EPA/GRI 1996a-d), Estimates of Methane Emissions from the U.S. Oil Industry (EPA 1999), consensus of industry peer review panels, BOEMRE reports (BOEMRE 2005, 2010a-c), analysis of BOEMRE data (EPA 2005, BOEMRE 2004), the Oil & Gas Journal (OGJ 2010a,b), the Interstate Oil and Gas Compact Commission (IOGCC 2008), and the United States Army Corps of Engineers (1995-2008).

The methodology for estimating CO₂ emissions from petroleum systems combines vented, fugitive, and process upset emissions sources from 29 activities for crude oil production field operations and one activity from petroleum refining. Emissions are estimated for each activity by multiplying emission factors by their corresponding activity factors. The emission factors for CO₂ are estimated by multiplying the CH₄ emission factors by a conversion factor, which is the ratio of CO₂ content and methane content in produced associated gas. The only exceptions to this methodology are the emission factors for crude oil storage tanks, which are obtained from E&P Tank simulation runs, and the emission factor for asphalt blowing, which was derived using the methodology and sample data from API (2009).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

This section describes the analysis conducted to quantify uncertainty associated with the estimates of emissions from petroleum systems. Performed using @RISK software and the IPCC-recommended Tier 2 methodology (Monte Carlo Simulation technique), the method employed provides for the specification of probability density functions for key variables within a computational structure that mirrors the calculation of the Inventory estimate. The results provide the range within which, with 95 percent certainty, emissions from this source category are likely to fall.

The detailed, bottom-up Inventory analysis used to evaluate U.S. petroleum systems reduces the uncertainty related to the CH₄ emission estimates in comparison to a top-down approach. However, some uncertainty still remains. Emission factors and activity factors are based on a combination of measurements, equipment design data, engineering calculations and studies, surveys of selected facilities and statistical reporting. Statistical uncertainties arise from natural variation in measurements, equipment types, operational variability and survey and statistical methodologies. Published activity factors are not available every year for all 64 activities analyzed for petroleum systems; therefore, some are estimated. Because of the dominance of the seven major sources, which account for 92 percent of the total methane emissions, the uncertainty surrounding these seven sources has been estimated most rigorously, and serves as the basis for determining the overall uncertainty of petroleum systems emission estimates.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 3-45. Petroleum systems CH₄ emissions in 2009 were estimated to be between 23.5 and 76.9 Tg CO₂ Eq., while CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 0.4 and 1.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 24 percent below to 149 percent above the 2009 emission estimates of 30.9 and 0.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. for CH₄ and CO₂, respectively.

Table 3-45: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ Emissions from Petroleum Systems (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.) ^b	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound ^b	Upper Bound ^b	Lower Bound ^b	Upper Bound ^b
Petroleum Systems	CH ₄	30.9	23.5	76.9	-24%	149%
Petroleum Systems	CO ₂	0.5	0.4	1.2	-24%	149%

^a Range of 2009 relative uncertainty predicted by Monte Carlo Simulation, based on 1995 base year activity factors, for a 95 percent confidence interval.

^b All reported values are rounded after calculation. As a result, lower and upper bounds may not be duplicable from other rounded values as shown in table.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification Discussion

As part of QA/QC and verification activities done for the Inventory, potential improvements were identified, which include a new emissions source associated with fixed roof storage tank emissions in the production segment. In some production areas the separator liquid level may drop too low such that the produced associated gas blows through the dump valve and vents through the storage tank. This data was included where available for the Inventory (see Recalculation discussion below). More data will be necessary to potentially add this as a separate source from storage tank flashing emissions and also to represent the true scope of activity across the United States.

Recalculations Discussion

Most revisions for the current Inventory relative to the previous report were due to updating previous years' data with revised data from existing data sources. Well completion venting, well drilling, and offshore platform activity factors were updated from existing data sources from 1990 onward.

Additionally, the emission factor for venting from fixed roof storage tanks in the crude oil production segment was revised. Using the same E&P Tank sample data runs on crude oil gravities ranging up to 45° API, a new national level flashing emissions factor was developed by using a large sample of production data, sorted by gravity, available from the HPDI database.

A study prepared for the Texas Environmental Research Consortium measured emissions rates from several oil and condensate tanks in Texas (TERC 2009). This data was plotted and compared to the flashing emissions simulated via E&P Tank simulation. EPA observed that additional emissions beyond the flashing were present in approximately 50 percent of the tanks. These emissions may be attributed to separator dump valves malfunctioning or other methods of associated gas entering the tank and venting from the roof. Because the dataset was limited to

represent production from only 14 counties that represent 0.5 percent of U.S. production, the national emission factor was scaled up such that only production from these counties is affected by the occurrence of associated gas venting through the storage tank.

Planned Improvements

As noted above, nearly all emission factors used in the development of the petroleum systems estimates were taken from EPA (1995, 1996, 1999), with the remaining emission factors taken from EPA default values (EPA 2005) and a consensus of industry peer review panels. These emission factors will be reviewed as part of future Inventory work. Results of this review and analysis will be incorporated into future inventories, as appropriate.

Malfunctioning separator dump valves is not an occurrence isolated to the Texas counties in which the sample data was obtained. New data will be reviewed as they become available on this emissions source and emissions updated, as appropriate.

Data collected through EPA's Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program will be reviewed for potential improvements to petroleum systems emissions sources. The rule will collect actual activity data and improved quantification methods from those used in several of the studies which form the basis of this Inventory. This data will be incorporated as appropriate into the current Inventory to improve the accuracy and uncertainty of the emissions estimates. In particular, EPA will investigate whether certain emissions sources currently accounted for in the Energy sector should be separately accounted for in the petroleum systems inventory (e.g., CO₂ process emissions from hydrogen production).

In 2010, all U.S. petroleum refineries were required to collect information on their greenhouse gas emissions. This data will be reported to EPA through its Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program in 2011. Data collected under this program will be evaluated for use in future inventories to improve the calculation of national emissions from petroleum systems.

[BEGIN BOX]

Box 3-3. Carbon Dioxide Transport, Injection, and Geological Storage

Carbon dioxide is produced, captured, transported, and used for Enhanced Oil Recovery (EOR) as well as commercial and non-EOR industrial applications. This CO₂ is produced from both naturally-occurring CO₂ reservoirs and from industrial sources such as natural gas processing plants and ammonia plants. In the current Inventory, emissions from naturally-produced CO₂ are estimated based on the application.

In the current Inventory report, the CO₂ that is used in non-EOR industrial and commercial applications (e.g., food processing, chemical production) is assumed to be emitted to the atmosphere during its industrial use. These emissions are discussed in the Carbon Dioxide Consumption section. The naturally-occurring CO₂ used in EOR operations is assumed to be fully sequestered. Additionally, all anthropogenic CO₂ emitted from natural gas processing and ammonia plants is assumed to be emitted to the atmosphere, regardless of whether the CO₂ is captured or not. These emissions are currently included in the Natural Gas Systems and the Ammonia Production sections of the Inventory report, respectively.

IPCC (IPCC, 2006) included, for the first time, methodological guidance to estimate emissions from the capture, transport, injection, and geological storage of CO₂. The methodology is based on the principle that the carbon capture and storage system should be handled in a complete and consistent manner across the entire Energy sector. The approach accounts for CO₂ captured at natural and industrial sites as well as emissions from capture, transport, and use. For storage specifically, a Tier 3 methodology is outlined for estimating and reporting emissions based on site-specific evaluations. However, IPCC (IPCC, 2006) notes that if a national regulatory process exists, emissions information available through that process may support development of CO₂ emissions estimates for geologic storage.

Beginning in 2010, facilities that conduct geologic sequestration of CO₂ and all other facilities that inject CO₂ underground will be required to calculate and report greenhouse gas data annually to EPA through its Greenhouse

Gas Reporting Program. The Greenhouse Gas Reporting Rule requires greenhouse gas reporting from facilities that inject CO₂ underground for geologic sequestration, and requires greenhouse gas reporting from all other facilities that inject CO₂ underground for any reason, including enhanced oil and gas recovery. Beginning in 2010, facilities conducting geologic sequestration of CO₂ are required to develop and implement an EPA-approved site-specific monitoring, reporting and verification (MRV) plan, and to report the amount of CO₂ sequestered using a mass balance approach. Data from this program, which will be reported to EPA in early 2012, for the 2011 calendar year, will provide additional facility-specific information about the carbon capture, transport and storage chain, EPA intends to evaluate that information closely and consider opportunities for improving our current inventory estimates.

Preliminary estimates indicate that the amount of CO₂ captured from industrial and natural sites is 47.3 Tg CO₂ (47,340 Gg CO₂) (see Table 3-46 and Table 3-47). Site-specific monitoring and reporting data for CO₂ injection sites (i.e., EOR operations) were not readily available, therefore, these estimates assume all CO₂ is emitted.

Table 3-46: Potential Emissions from CO₂ Capture and Transport (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Year	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Acid Gas Removal Plants	4.8	2.3	5.8	6.2	6.4	6.6	7.0
Naturally Occurring CO ₂	20.8	23.2	28.3	30.2	33.1	36.1	39.7
Ammonia Production Plants	+	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6
Pipelines Transporting CO ₂	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	25.6	26.1	34.7	37.1	40.1	43.3	47.3

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note; Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-47: Potential Emissions from CO₂ Capture and Transport (Gg)

Year	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Acid Gas Removal Plants	4,832	2,264	5,798	6,224	6,088	6,630	7,035
Naturally Occurring CO ₂	20,811	23,208	28,267	30,224	33,086	36,102	39,725
Ammonia Production Plants	+	676	676	676	676	580	580
Pipelines Transporting CO ₂	8	8	7	7	7	8	8
Total	25,643	26,149	34,742	37,124	40,141	43,311	47,340

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg.

Note: Totals do not include emissions from pipelines transporting CO₂

Note; Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

[END BOX]

3.8. Energy Sources of Indirect Greenhouse Gas Emissions

In addition to the main greenhouse gases addressed above, many energy-related activities generate emissions of indirect greenhouse gases. Total emissions of nitrogen oxides (NO_x), carbon monoxide (CO), and non-CH₄ volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs) from energy-related activities from 1990 to 2009 are reported in Table 3-48.

Table 3-48: NO_x, CO, and NMVOC Emissions from Energy-Related Activities (Gg)

Gas/Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
NO_x	21,106	18,477	15,319	14,473	13,829	13,012	10,887
Mobile Combustion	10,862	10,199	9,012	8,488	7,965	7,441	6,206
Stationary Combustion	10,023	8,053	5,858	5,545	5,432	5,148	4,159
Oil and Gas Activities	139	111	321	319	318	318	393
Incineration of Waste	82	114	129	121	114	106	128
<i>International Bunker Fuels*</i>	<i>2,020</i>	<i>1,344</i>	<i>1,703</i>	<i>1,793</i>	<i>1,791</i>	<i>1,917</i>	<i>1,651</i>
CO	125,640	89,714	69,062	65,399	61,739	58,078	49,647
Mobile Combustion	119,360	83,559	62,692	58,972	55,253	51,533	43,355
Stationary Combustion	5,000	4,340	4,649	4,695	4,744	4,792	4,543

Incineration of Waste	978	1,670	1,403	1,412	1,421	1,430	1,403
Oil and Gas Activities	302	146	318	319	320	322	345
<i>International Bunker Fuels*</i>	<i>130</i>	<i>128</i>	<i>132</i>	<i>161</i>	<i>160</i>	<i>165</i>	<i>149</i>
NMVOCs	12,620	8,952	7,798	7,702	7,604	7,507	5,333
Mobile Combustion	10,932	7,229	6,330	6,037	5,742	5,447	4,151
Stationary Combustion	912	1,077	716	918	1,120	1,321	424
Oil and Gas Activities	554	388	510	510	509	509	599
Incineration of Waste	222	257	241	238	234	230	159
<i>International Bunker Fuels*</i>	<i>61</i>	<i>45</i>	<i>54</i>	<i>59</i>	<i>59</i>	<i>62</i>	<i>57</i>

* These values are presented for informational purposes only and are not included in totals.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

These emission estimates were obtained from preliminary data (EPA 2010, EPA 2009), and disaggregated based on EPA (2003), which, in its final iteration, will be published on the National Emission Inventory (NEI) Air Pollutant Emission Trends web site. Emissions were calculated either for individual categories or for many categories combined, using basic activity data (e.g., the amount of raw material processed) as an indicator of emissions. National activity data were collected for individual categories from various agencies. Depending on the category, these basic activity data may include data on production, fuel deliveries, raw material processed, etc.

Activity data were used in conjunction with emission factors, which together relate the quantity of emissions to the activity. Emission factors are generally available from the EPA's Compilation of Air Pollutant Emission Factors, AP-42 (EPA 1997). The EPA currently derives the overall emission control efficiency of a source category from a variety of information sources, including published reports, the 1985 National Acid Precipitation and Assessment Program emissions inventory, and other EPA databases.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainties in these estimates are partly due to the accuracy of the emission factors used and accurate estimates of activity data. A quantitative uncertainty analysis was not performed.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

3.9. International Bunker Fuels (IPCC Source Category 1: Memo Items)

Emissions resulting from the combustion of fuels used for international transport activities, termed international bunker fuels under the UNFCCC, are not included in national emission totals, but are reported separately based upon location of fuel sales. The decision to report emissions from international bunker fuels separately, instead of allocating them to a particular country, was made by the Intergovernmental Negotiating Committee in establishing the Framework Convention on Climate Change.⁹⁶ These decisions are reflected in the IPCC methodological guidance, including the 2006 IPCC Guidelines, in which countries are requested to report emissions from ships or aircraft that depart from their ports with fuel purchased within national boundaries and are engaged in international transport separately from national totals (IPCC 2006).⁹⁷

Greenhouse gases emitted from the combustion of international bunker fuels, like other fossil fuels, include CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O. Two transport modes are addressed under the IPCC definition of international bunker fuels: aviation and marine.⁹⁸ Emissions from ground transport activities—by road vehicles and trains—even when crossing

⁹⁶ See report of the Intergovernmental Negotiating Committee for a Framework Convention on Climate Change on the work of its ninth session, held at Geneva from 7 to 18 February 1994 (A/AC.237/55, annex I, para. 1c).

⁹⁷ Note that the definition of international bunker fuels used by the UNFCCC differs from that used by the International Civil Aviation Organization.

⁹⁸ Most emission related international aviation and marine regulations are under the rubric of the International Civil Aviation

international borders are allocated to the country where the fuel was loaded into the vehicle and, therefore, are not counted as bunker fuel emissions.

The IPCC Guidelines distinguish between different modes of air traffic. Civil aviation comprises aircraft used for the commercial transport of passengers and freight, military aviation comprises aircraft under the control of national armed forces, and general aviation applies to recreational and small corporate aircraft. The IPCC Guidelines further define international bunker fuel use from civil aviation as the fuel combusted for civil (e.g., commercial) aviation purposes by aircraft arriving or departing on international flight segments. However, as mentioned above, and in keeping with the IPCC Guidelines, only the fuel purchased in the United States and used by aircraft taking-off (i.e., departing) from the United States are reported here. The standard fuel used for civil aviation is kerosene-type jet fuel, while the typical fuel used for general aviation is aviation gasoline.⁹⁹

Emissions of CO₂ from aircraft are essentially a function of fuel use. CH₄ and N₂O emissions also depend upon engine characteristics, flight conditions, and flight phase (i.e., take-off, climb, cruise, decent, and landing). CH₄ is the product of incomplete combustion and occur mainly during the landing and take-off phases. In jet engines, N₂O is primarily produced by the oxidation of atmospheric nitrogen, and the majority of emissions occur during the cruise phase. International marine bunkers comprise emissions from fuels burned by ocean-going ships of all flags that are engaged in international transport. Ocean-going ships are generally classified as cargo and passenger carrying, military (i.e., U.S. Navy), fishing, and miscellaneous support ships (e.g., tugboats). For the purpose of estimating greenhouse gas emissions, international bunker fuels are solely related to cargo and passenger carrying vessels, which is the largest of the four categories, and military vessels. Two main types of fuels are used on sea-going vessels: distillate diesel fuel and residual fuel oil. CO₂ is the primary greenhouse gas emitted from marine shipping.

Overall, aggregate greenhouse gas emissions in 2009 from the combustion of international bunker fuels from both aviation and marine activities were 124.4 Tg CO₂ Eq., or ten percent above emissions in 1990 (see Table 3-49 and Table 3-50). Emissions from international flights and international shipping voyages departing from the United States have increased by 49 percent and decreased by 18 percent, respectively, since 1990. The majority of these emissions were in the form of CO₂; however, small amounts of CH₄ and N₂O were also emitted.

Table 3-49: CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O Emissions from International Bunker Fuels (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Mode	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO₂	111.8	98.5	109.7	128.4	127.6	133.7	123.1
Aviation	46.4	58.8	56.7	74.6	73.8	75.5	69.4
Marine	65.4	39.7	53.0	53.8	53.9	58.2	53.7
CH₄	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
Aviation	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Marine	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
N₂O	1.1	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.1
Aviation	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7
Marine	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4
Total	113.0	99.5	110.9	129.7	129.0	135.1	124.4

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Includes aircraft cruise altitude emissions.

Table 3-50: CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from International Bunker Fuels (Gg)

Gas/Mode	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO₂	111,828	98,482	109,750	128,384	127,618	133,704	123,127
Aviation	46,399	58,785	56,736	74,552	73,762	75,508	69,404
Marine	65,429	39,697	53,014	53,832	53,856	58,196	53,723
CH₄	8	6	7	8	8	8	7
Aviation	2	2	2	2	2	2	2

Organization (ICAO) or the International Maritime Organization (IMO), which develop international codes, recommendations, and conventions, such as the International Convention of the Prevention of Pollution from Ships (MARPOL).

⁹⁹ Naphtha-type jet fuel was used in the past by the military in turbojet and turboprop aircraft engines.

Marine	7		4		5	5	5	6	5
N₂O	3		3		3	4	4	4	4
Aviation	2		2		2	2	2	2	2
Marine	2		1		1	1	1	1	1

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Includes aircraft cruise altitude emissions.

Methodology

Emissions of CO₂ were estimated by applying C content and fraction oxidized factors to fuel consumption activity data. This approach is analogous to that described under CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion. C content and fraction oxidized factors for jet fuel, distillate fuel oil, and residual fuel oil were taken directly from EIA and are presented in Annex 2.1, Annex 2.2, and Annex 3.7 of this Inventory. Density conversions were taken from Chevron (2000), ASTM (1989), and USAF (1998). Heat content for distillate fuel oil and residual fuel oil were taken from EIA (2010) and USAF (1998), and heat content for jet fuel was taken from EIA (2010). A complete description of the methodology and a listing of the various factors employed can be found in Annex 2.1. See Annex 3.7 for a specific discussion on the methodology used for estimating emissions from international bunker fuel use by the U.S. military.

Emission estimates for CH₄ and N₂O were calculated by multiplying emission factors by measures of fuel consumption by fuel type and mode. Emission factors used in the calculations of CH₄ and N₂O emissions were obtained from the Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). For aircraft emissions, the following values, in units of grams of pollutant per kilogram of fuel consumed (g/kg), were employed: 0.09 for CH₄ and 0.1 for N₂O. For marine vessels consuming either distillate diesel or residual fuel oil the following values (g/MJ), were employed: 0.32 for CH₄ and 0.08 for N₂O. Activity data for aviation included solely jet fuel consumption statistics, while the marine mode included both distillate diesel and residual fuel oil.

Activity data on aircraft fuel consumption for inventory years 2000 through 2005 were developed using the FAA's System for assessing Aviation's Global Emissions (SAGE) model (FAA 2006). That tool has been subsequently replaced by the Aviation Environmental Design Tool (AEDT), which calculates noise in addition to aircraft fuel burn and emissions for flights globally in a given year (FAA 2010). Data for inventory years 2006 through 2009 were developed using AEDT.

International aviation bunker fuel consumption from 1990 to 2009 was calculated by assigning the difference between the sum of domestic activity data (in Tbtu) from SAGE and the AEDT, and the reported EIA transportation jet fuel consumption to the international bunker fuel category for jet fuel from EIA (2010). Data on U.S. Department of Defense (DoD) aviation bunker fuels and total jet fuel consumed by the U.S. military was supplied by the Office of the Under Secretary of Defense (Installations and Environment), DoD. Estimates of the percentage of each Service's total operations that were international operations were developed by DoD. Military aviation bunkers included international operations, operations conducted from naval vessels at sea, and operations conducted from U.S. installations principally over international water in direct support of military operations at sea. Military aviation bunker fuel emissions were estimated using military fuel and operations data synthesized from unpublished data by the Defense Energy Support Center, under DoD's Defense Logistics Agency (DESC 2011). Together, the data allow the quantity of fuel used in military international operations to be estimated. Densities for each jet fuel type were obtained from a report from the U.S. Air Force (USAF 1998). Final jet fuel consumption estimates are presented in Table 3-51. See Annex 3.7 for additional discussion of military data.

Activity data on distillate diesel and residual fuel oil consumption by cargo or passenger carrying marine vessels departing from U.S. ports were taken from unpublished data collected by the Foreign Trade Division of the U.S. Department of Commerce's Bureau of the Census (DOC 1991 through 2010) for 1990 through 2001, 2007, through 2009, and the Department of Homeland Security's Bunker Report for 2003 through 2006 (DHS 2008). Fuel consumption data for 2002 was interpolated due to inconsistencies in reported fuel consumption data. Activity data on distillate diesel consumption by military vessels departing from U.S. ports were provided by DESC (2011). The total amount of fuel provided to naval vessels was reduced by 13 percent to account for fuel used while the vessels were not-underway (i.e., in port). Data on the percentage of steaming hours underway versus not-underway were provided by the U.S. Navy. These fuel consumption estimates are presented in Table 3-52.

Table 3-51: Aviation Jet Fuel Consumption for International Transport (Million Gallons)

Nationality	1990		2000		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
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U.S. and Foreign Carriers	4,934		6,157		5,943	7,809	7,726	7,909	7,270
U.S. Military	862		480		462	400	410	386	368
Total	5,796		6,638		6,405	8,209	8,137	8,295	7,638

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-52: Marine Fuel Consumption for International Transport (Million Gallons)

Fuel Type	1990		2000		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Residual Fuel Oil	4,781		2,967		3,881	4,004	4,059	4,373	4,040
Distillate Diesel Fuel & Other	617		290		444	446	358	445	426
U.S. Military Naval Fuels	522		329		471	414	444	437	384
Total	5,920		3,586		4,796	4,864	4,861	5,254	4,850

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Emission estimates related to the consumption of international bunker fuels are subject to the same uncertainties as those from domestic aviation and marine mobile combustion emissions; however, additional uncertainties result from the difficulty in collecting accurate fuel consumption activity data for international transport activities separate from domestic transport activities.¹⁰⁰ For example, smaller aircraft on shorter routes often carry sufficient fuel to complete several flight segments without refueling in order to minimize time spent at the airport gate or take advantage of lower fuel prices at particular airports. This practice, called tankering, when done on international flights, complicates the use of fuel sales data for estimating bunker fuel emissions. Tankering is less common with the type of large, long-range aircraft that make many international flights from the United States, however. Similar practices occur in the marine shipping industry where fuel costs represent a significant portion of overall operating costs and fuel prices vary from port to port, leading to some tankering from ports with low fuel costs.

Uncertainties exist with regard to the total fuel used by military aircraft and ships, and in the activity data on military operations and training that were used to estimate percentages of total fuel use reported as bunker fuel emissions. Total aircraft and ship fuel use estimates were developed from DoD records, which document fuel sold to the Navy and Air Force from the Defense Logistics Agency. These data may slightly over or under estimate actual total fuel use in aircraft and ships because each Service may have procured fuel from, and/or may have sold to, traded with, and/or given fuel to other ships, aircraft, governments, or other entities. There are uncertainties in aircraft operations and training activity data. Estimates for the quantity of fuel actually used in Navy and Air Force flying activities reported as bunker fuel emissions had to be estimated based on a combination of available data and expert judgment. Estimates of marine bunker fuel emissions were based on Navy vessel steaming hour data, which reports fuel used while underway and fuel used while not underway. This approach does not capture some voyages that would be classified as domestic for a commercial vessel. Conversely, emissions from fuel used while not underway preceding an international voyage are reported as domestic rather than international as would be done for a commercial vessel. There is uncertainty associated with ground fuel estimates for 1997 through 2001. Small fuel quantities may have been used in vehicles or equipment other than that which was assumed for each fuel type.

There are also uncertainties in fuel end-uses by fuel-type, emissions factors, fuel densities, diesel fuel sulfur content, aircraft and vessel engine characteristics and fuel efficiencies, and the methodology used to back-calculate the data set to 1990 using the original set from 1995. The data were adjusted for trends in fuel use based on a closely correlating, but not matching, data set. All assumptions used to develop the estimate were based on process knowledge, Department and military Service data, and expert judgments. The magnitude of the potential errors related to the various uncertainties has not been calculated, but is believed to be small. The uncertainties associated with future military bunker fuel emission estimates could be reduced through additional data collection.

Although aggregate fuel consumption data have been used to estimate emissions from aviation, the recommended method for estimating emissions of gases other than CO₂ in the Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines is to use data by specific aircraft type (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). The IPCC also recommends that cruise altitude emissions be estimated separately using fuel consumption data, while landing and take-off (LTO) cycle data be used to estimate

¹⁰⁰ See uncertainty discussions under Carbon Dioxide Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion.

near-ground level emissions of gases other than CO₂.¹⁰¹

There is also concern as to the reliability of the existing DOC (1991 through 2010) data on marine vessel fuel consumption reported at U.S. customs stations due to the significant degree of inter-annual variation.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2008. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A source-specific QA/QC plan for international bunker fuels was developed and implemented. This effort included a Tier 1 analysis, as well as portions of a Tier 2 analysis. The Tier 2 procedures that were implemented involved checks specifically focusing on the activity data and emission factor sources and methodology used for estimating CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O from international bunker fuels in the United States. Emission totals for the different sectors and fuels were compared and trends were investigated. No corrective actions were necessary.

Recalculations Discussion

Slight changes to emission estimates are due to revisions made to historical activity data for aviation jet fuel consumption using the FAA's AEDT. These historical data changes resulted in changes to the emission estimates for 1990 through 2008 relative to the previous Inventory, which averaged to an annual decrease in emissions from international bunker fuels of 0.13 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.1 percent) in CO₂ emissions, an annual decrease of less than 0.01 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.05 percent) in CH₄ emissions, and an annual decrease of less than 0.01 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.1 percent) in N₂O emissions.

3.10. Wood Biomass and Ethanol Consumption (IPCC Source Category 1A)

The combustion of biomass fuels such as wood, charcoal, and wood waste and biomass-based fuels such as ethanol from corn and woody crops generates CO₂ in addition to CH₄ and N₂O already covered in this chapter. In line with the reporting requirements for inventories submitted under the UNFCCC, CO₂ emissions from biomass combustion have been estimated separately from fossil fuel CO₂ emissions and are not directly included in the energy sector contributions to U.S. totals. In accordance with IPCC methodological guidelines, any such emissions are calculated by accounting for net carbon (C) fluxes from changes in biogenic C reservoirs in wooded or crop lands. For a more complete description of this methodological approach, see the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter (Chapter 7), which accounts for the contribution of any resulting CO₂ emissions to U.S. totals within the Land Use, Land-Use Change and Forestry sector's approach.

In 2009, total CO₂ emissions from the burning of woody biomass in the industrial, residential, commercial, and electricity generation sectors were approximately 183.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (183,777 Gg) (see Table 3-53 and Table 3-54). As the largest consumer of woody biomass, the industrial sector was responsible for 62 percent of the CO₂ emissions from this source. Emissions from this sector decreased from 2008 to 2009 due to a corresponding decrease in wood consumption. The residential sector was the second largest emitter, constituting 24 percent of the total, while the commercial and electricity generation sectors accounted for the remainder.

Table 3-53: CO₂ Emissions from Wood Consumption by End-Use Sector (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

End-Use Sector	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Industrial	135.3	153.6	136.3	138.2	132.6	126.1	114.2
Residential	59.8	43.3	44.3	40.2	44.3	46.4	44.3

¹⁰¹ U.S. aviation emission estimates for CO, NO_x, and NMVOCs are reported by EPA's National Emission Inventory (NEI) Air Pollutant Emission Trends web site, and reported under the Mobile Combustion section. It should be noted that these estimates are based solely upon LTO cycles and consequently only capture near ground-level emissions, which are more relevant for air quality evaluations. These estimates also include both domestic and international flights. Therefore, estimates reported under the Mobile Combustion section overestimate IPCC-defined domestic CO, NO_x, and NMVOC emissions by including landing and take-off (LTO) cycles by aircraft on international flights, but underestimate because they do not include emissions from aircraft on domestic flight segments at cruising altitudes. The estimates in Mobile Combustion are also likely to include emissions from ocean-going vessels departing from U.S. ports on international voyages.

Commercial	6.8	7.4	7.2	6.7	7.2	7.5	7.4
Electricity Generation	13.3	13.9	19.1	18.7	19.2	18.3	17.8
Total	215.2	218.1	206.9	203.8	203.3	198.4	183.8

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-54: CO₂ Emissions from Wood Consumption by End-Use Sector (Gg)

End-Use Sector	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Industrial	135,348	153,559	136,269	138,207	132,642	126,145	114,222
Residential	59,808	43,309	44,340	40,215	44,340	46,402	44,340
Commercial	6,779	7,370	7,182	6,675	7,159	7,526	7,406
Electricity Generation	13,252	13,851	19,074	18,748	19,175	18,288	17,809
Total	215,186	218,088	206,865	203,846	203,316	198,361	183,777

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Biomass-derived fuel consumption in the United States transportation sector consisted primarily of ethanol use. Ethanol is primarily produced from corn grown in the Midwest, and was used mostly in the Midwest and South. Pure ethanol can be combusted, or it can be mixed with gasoline as a supplement or octane-enhancing agent. The most common mixture is a 90 percent gasoline, 10 percent ethanol blend known as gasohol. Ethanol and ethanol blends are often used to fuel public transport vehicles such as buses, or centrally fueled fleet vehicles.

In 2009, the United States consumed an estimated 894 trillion Btu of ethanol, and as a result, produced approximately 61.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (61,231 Gg) (see Table 3-55 and Table 3-56) of CO₂ emissions. Ethanol production and consumption has grown steadily every year since 1990, with the exception of 1996 due to short corn supplies and high prices in that year.

Table 3-55: CO₂ Emissions from Ethanol Consumption (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

End-Use Sector	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Transportation	4.1	9.2	22.4	30.3	38.1	53.8	60.2
Industrial	0.1	0.1	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.9
Commercial	+	+	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Total	4.2	9.4	23.0	31.0	38.9	54.8	61.2

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 3-56: CO₂ Emissions from Ethanol Consumption (Gg)

End-Use Sector	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Transportation ^a	4,139	9,239	22,427	30,255	38,138	53,827	60,176
Industrial	56	87	469	662	674	798	892
Commercial	34	26	60	86	135	146	163
Total	4,229	9,352	22,956	31,002	38,946	54,770	61,231

^a See Annex 3.2, Table A-88 for additional information on transportation consumption of these fuels.

Methodology

Woody biomass emissions were estimated by applying two EIA gross heat contents (Lindstrom 2006) to U.S. consumption data (EIA 2010) (see Table 3-57), provided in energy units for the industrial, residential, commercial, and electric generation sectors. One heat content (16.95 MMBtu/MT wood and wood waste) was applied to the industrial sector's consumption, while the other heat content (15.43 MMBtu/MT wood and wood waste) was applied to the consumption data for the other sectors. An EIA emission factor of 0.434 MT C/MT wood (Lindstrom 2006) was then applied to the resulting quantities of woody biomass to obtain CO₂ emission estimates. It was assumed that the woody biomass contains black liquor and other wood wastes, has a moisture content of 12 percent, and is converted into CO₂ with 100 percent efficiency. The emissions from ethanol consumption were calculated by applying an emission factor of 18.67 Tg C/QBtu (EPA 2010) to U.S. ethanol consumption estimates that were provided in energy units (EIA 2010) (see Table 3-58).

Table 3-57: Woody Biomass Consumption by Sector (Trillion Btu)

End-Use Sector	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Industrial	1,442	1,636	1,452	1,472	1,413	1,344	1,217

Residential	580	420	430	390	430	450	430
Commercial	66	71	70	65	69	73	72
Electricity Generation	129	134	185	182	186	177	173
Total	2,216	2,262	2,136	2,109	2,098	2,044	1,891

Table 3-58: Ethanol Consumption by Sector (Trillion Btu)

End-Use Sector	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Transportation	60.5	135.0	327.6	442.0	557.1	786.3	879.0
Industrial	0.8	1.3	6.8	9.7	9.8	11.7	13.0
Commercial	0.5	0.4	0.9	1.3	2.0	2.1	2.4
Total	61.8	136.6	335.3	452.9	568.9	800.1	894.5

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

It is assumed that the combustion efficiency for woody biomass is 100 percent, which is believed to be an overestimate of the efficiency of wood combustion processes in the United States. Decreasing the combustion efficiency would decrease emission estimates. Additionally, the heat content applied to the consumption of woody biomass in the residential, commercial, and electric power sectors is unlikely to be a completely accurate representation of the heat content for all the different types of woody biomass consumed within these sectors. Emission estimates from ethanol production are more certain than estimates from woody biomass consumption due to better activity data collection methods and uniform combustion techniques.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Recalculations Discussion

Wood consumption values were revised for 2006 through 2008 based on updated information from EIA's Annual Energy Review (EIA 2010). This adjustment of historical data for wood biomass consumption resulted in an average annual decrease in emissions from wood biomass consumption of 0.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.4 percent) from 1990 through 2008. The C content coefficient for ethanol was also revised to be consistent with the carbon content coefficients used for EPA's Mandatory Greenhouse Gas Reporting Rule. Slight adjustments were made to ethanol consumption based on updated information from EIA (2010), which slightly decreased estimates for ethanol consumed. As a result of these adjustments, average annual emissions from ethanol consumption increased by about 0.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1.9 percent) relative to the previous Inventory.

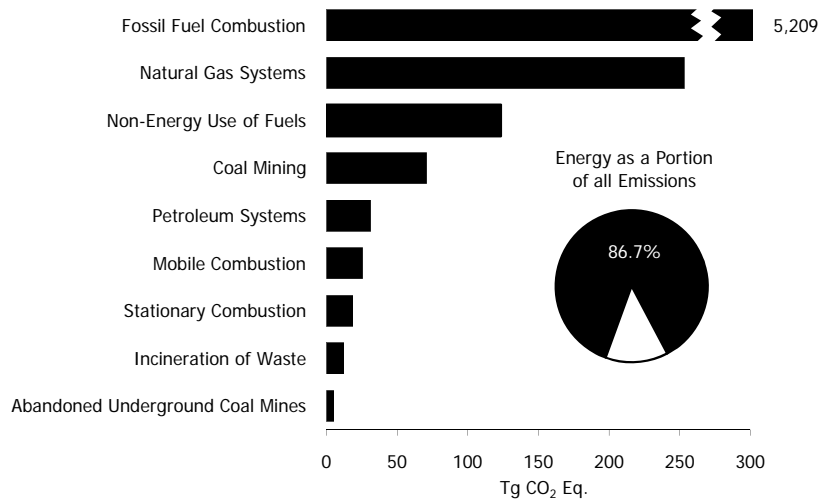


Figure 3-1: 2009 Energy Chapter Greenhouse Gas Sources

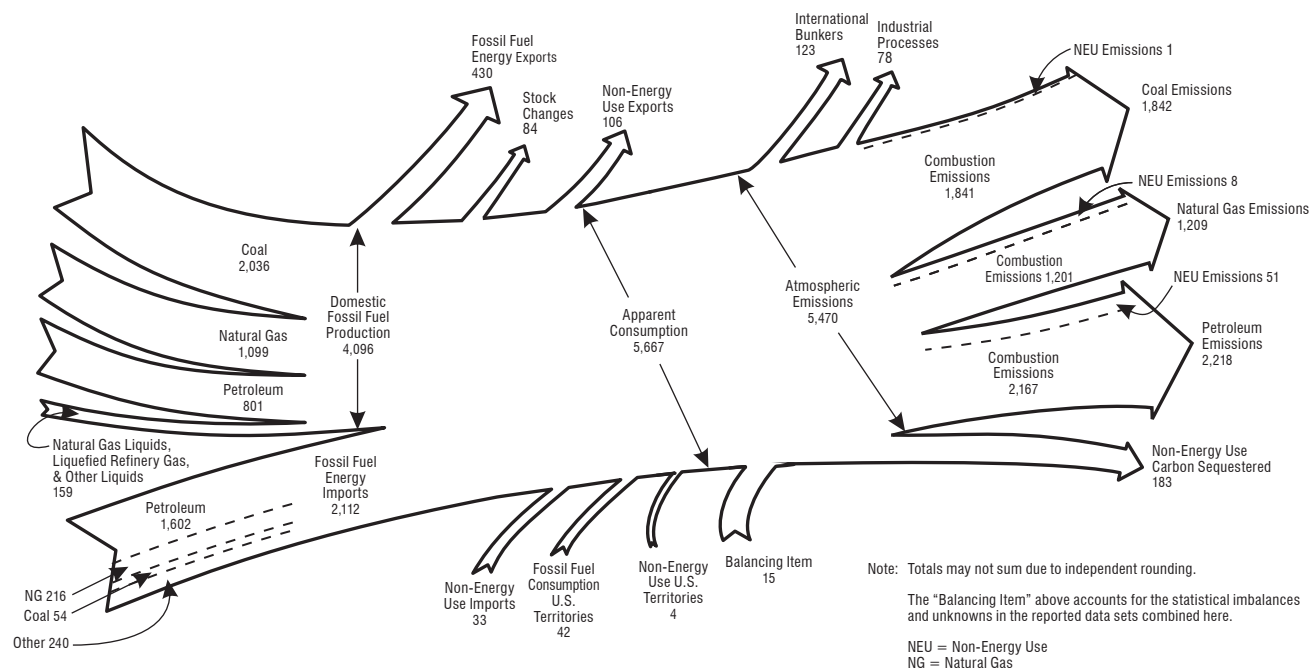


Figure 3-2 2009 U.S. Fossil Carbon Flows (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

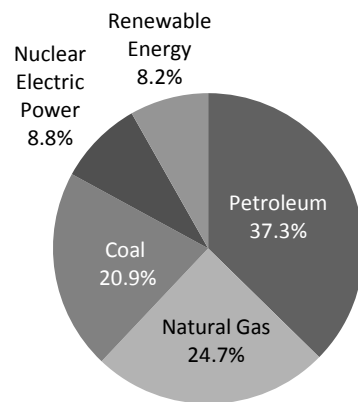


Figure 3-3: 2009 U.S. Energy Consumption by Energy Source

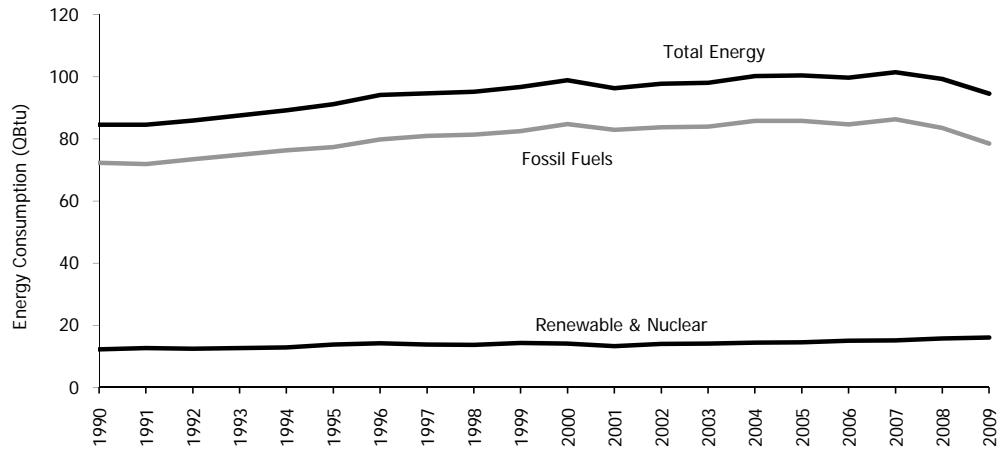


Figure 3-4: U.S. Energy Consumption (Quadrillion Btu)

Note: Expressed as gross calorific values.

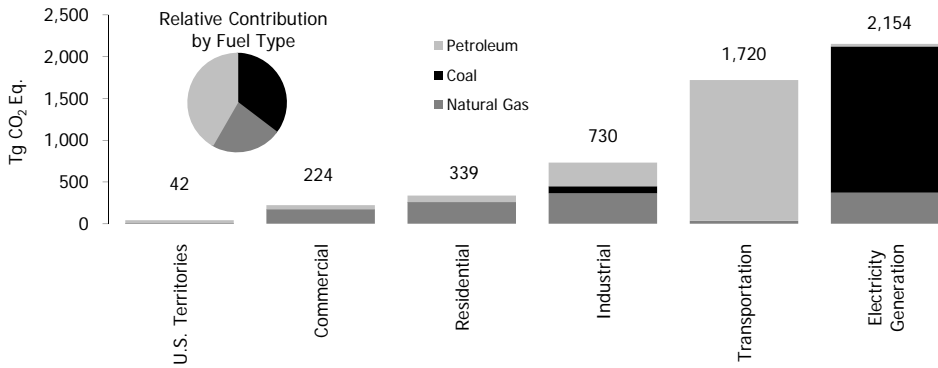


Figure 3-5: 2009 CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by Sector and Fuel Type

Note: The electricity generation sector also includes emissions of less than 0.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. from geothermal-based electricity generation.

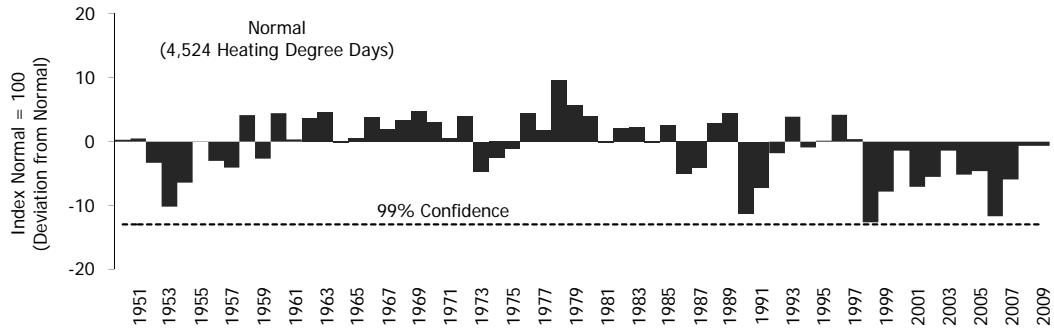


Figure 3-6: Annual Deviations from Normal Heating Degree Days for the United States (1950-2009)

Note: Climatological normal data are highlighted.

Statistical confidence interval for "normal" climatology period of 1971 through 2000.

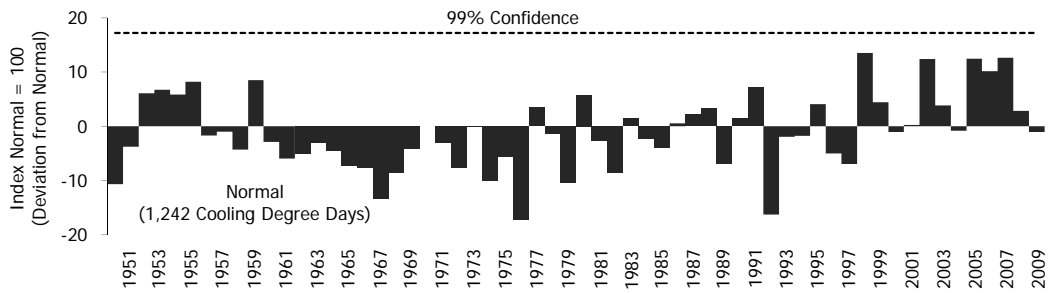


Figure 3-7: Annual Deviations from Normal Cooling Degree Days for the United States (1950-2009)

Note: Climatological normal data are highlighted.

Statistical confidence interval for "normal" climatology period of 1971 through 2000.

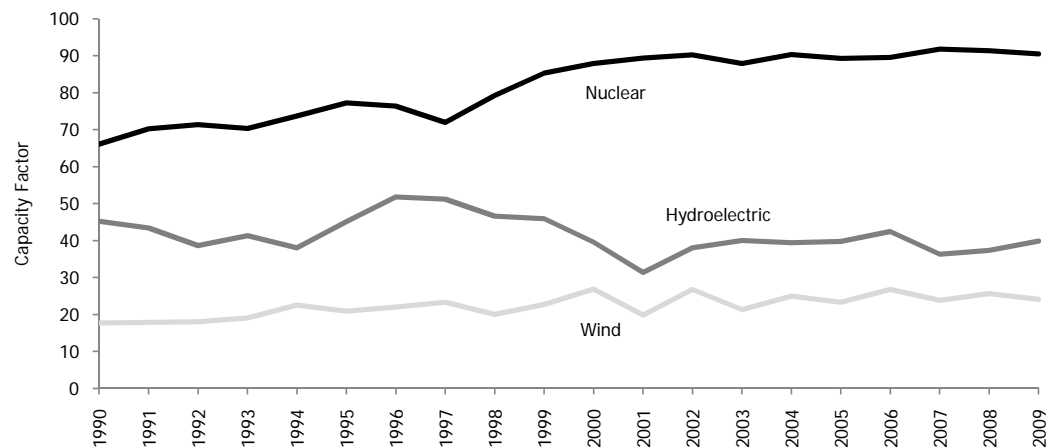


Figure 3-8: Nuclear, Hydroelectric, and Wind Power Plant Capacity Factors in the United States (1990-2009)

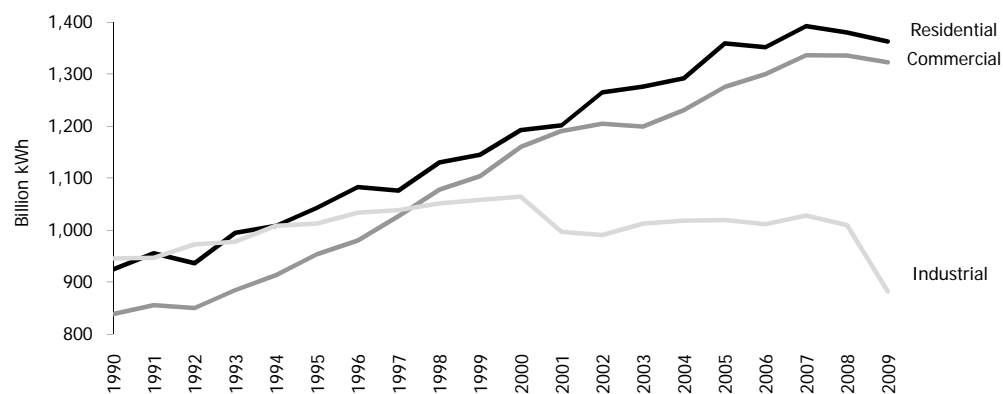


Figure 3-9: Electric Generation Retail Sales by End-Use Sector

Note: The transportation end-use sector consumes minor quantities of electricity.

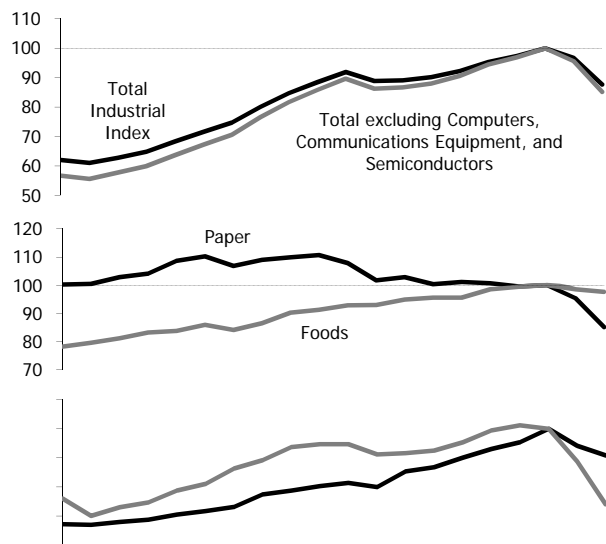


Figure 3-10: Industrial Production Indexes (Index 2007=100)

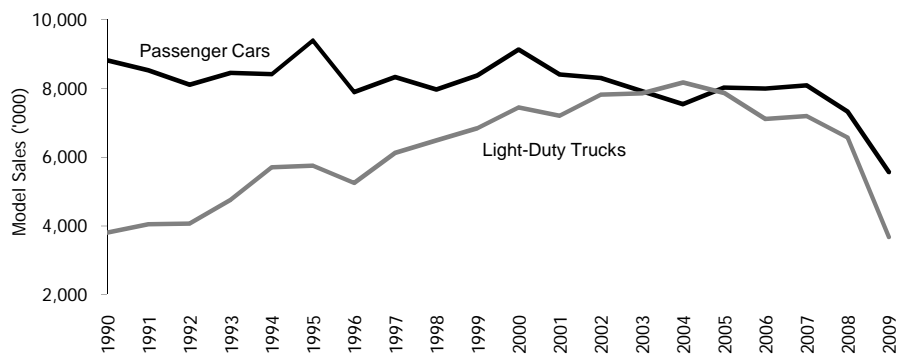


Figure 3-12: Sales of New Passenger Cars and Light-Duty Trucks, 1990-2009

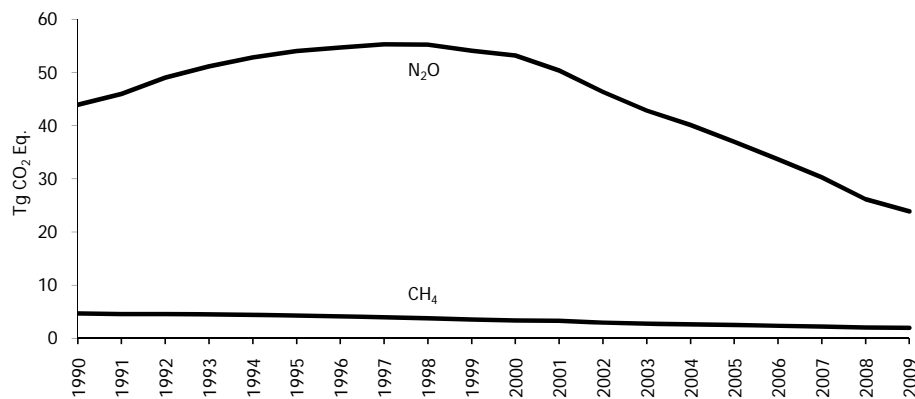


Figure 3-13: Mobile Source CH_4 and N_2O Emissions

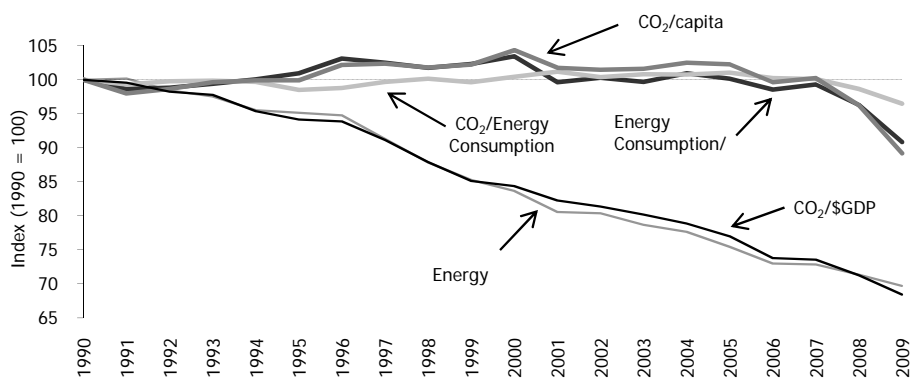


Figure 3-14: U.S. Energy Consumption and Energy-Related CO_2 Emissions Per Capita and Per Dollar GDP

4. Industrial Processes

Greenhouse gas emissions are produced as the by-products of various non-energy-related industrial activities. That is, these emissions are produced from an industrial process itself and are not directly a result of energy consumed during the process. For example, raw materials can be chemically transformed from one state to another. This transformation can result in the release of greenhouse gases such as carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), and nitrous oxide (N₂O). The processes addressed in this chapter include iron and steel production and metallurgical coke production, cement production, lime production, ammonia production and urea consumption, limestone and dolomite consumption (e.g., flux stone, flue gas desulfurization, and glass manufacturing), soda ash production and use, aluminum production, titanium dioxide production, CO₂ consumption, ferroalloy production, phosphoric acid production, zinc production, lead production, petrochemical production, silicon carbide production and consumption, nitric acid production, and adipic acid production (see Figure 4-1).

Figure 4-1: 2009 Industrial Processes Chapter Greenhouse Gas Sources

In addition to the three greenhouse gases listed above, there are also industrial sources of man-made fluorinated compounds called hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs), perfluorocarbons (PFCs), and sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆). The present contribution of these gases to the radiative forcing effect of all anthropogenic greenhouse gases is small; however, because of their extremely long lifetimes, many of them will continue to accumulate in the atmosphere as long as emissions continue. In addition, many of these gases have high global warming potentials; SF₆ is the most potent greenhouse gas the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) has evaluated. Usage of HFCs is growing rapidly since they are the primary substitutes for ozone depleting substances (ODSs), which are being phased-out under the Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer. In addition to their use as ODS substitutes, HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ are employed and emitted by a number of other industrial sources in the United States. These industries include aluminum production, HCFC-22 production, semiconductor manufacture, electric power transmission and distribution, and magnesium metal production and processing.

In 2009, industrial processes generated emissions of 282.9 teragrams of CO₂ equivalent (Tg CO₂ Eq.), or 4 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions. CO₂ emissions from all industrial processes were 119.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. (119,010 Gg) in 2009, or 2 percent of total U.S. CO₂ emissions. CH₄ emissions from industrial processes resulted in emissions of approximately 1.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (58 Gg) in 2009, which was less than 1 percent of U.S. CH₄ emissions. N₂O emissions from adipic acid and nitric acid production were 16.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (53 Gg) in 2009, or 6 percent of total U.S. N₂O emissions. In 2009 combined emissions of HFCs, PFCs and SF₆ totaled 146.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. Despite the significant increase in HFC emissions associated with increased usage of ODSs, total emissions from industrial processes in 2009 were less than 1990 for the first time since 1994. This decrease is primarily due to significant reductions in emissions from iron and steel production, metallurgical coke production, ammonia production and urea consumption, adipic acid production, HCFC-22 production, aluminum production and cement production.

Table 4-1 summarizes emissions for the Industrial Processes chapter in Tg CO₂ Eq., while unweighted native gas emissions in Gg are provided in Table 4-2. The source descriptions that follow in the chapter are presented in the order as reported to the UNFCCC in the common reporting format tables, corresponding generally to: mineral products, chemical production, metal production, and emissions from the uses of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆.

Table 4-1: Emissions from Industrial Processes (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO₂	188.4	184.9	165.4	169.9	172.6	159.5	119.0
Iron and Steel Production and Metallurgical Coke Production	99.5	85.9	65.9	68.8	71.0	66.0	41.9
<i>Iron and Steel Production</i>	97.1	83.7	63.9	66.9	69.0	63.7	40.9
<i>Metallurgical Coke Production</i>	2.5	2.2	2.0	1.9	2.1	2.3	1.0
Cement Production	33.3	40.4	45.2	45.8	44.5	40.5	29.0
Ammonia Production & Urea Consumption	16.8	16.4	12.8	12.3	14.0	11.9	11.8

Lime Production	11.5	14.1	14.4	15.1	14.6	14.3	11.2
Limestone and Dolomite Use	5.1	5.1	6.8	8.0	7.7	6.3	7.6
Soda Ash Production and Consumption	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.1	4.1	4.3
Aluminum Production	6.8	6.1	4.1	3.8	4.3	4.5	3.0
Petrochemical Production	3.3	4.5	4.2	3.8	3.9	3.4	2.7
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.7	1.9	1.8	1.8
Titanium Dioxide Production	1.2	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.5
Ferroalloy Production	2.2	1.9	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.5
Phosphoric Acid Production	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.0
Zinc Production	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.0
Lead Production	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
CH₄	1.9	2.2	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.2
Petrochemical Production	0.9	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8
Iron and Steel Production and Metallurgical Coke Production	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.4
<i>Iron and Steel Production</i>	<i>1.0</i>	<i>0.9</i>	<i>0.7</i>	<i>0.7</i>	<i>0.7</i>	<i>0.6</i>	<i>0.4</i>
<i>Metallurgical Coke Production</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Ferroalloy Production	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N₂O	33.5	24.9	21.5	20.5	22.9	18.5	16.5
Nitric Acid Production	17.7	19.4	16.5	16.2	19.2	16.4	14.6
Adipic Acid Production	15.8	5.5	5.0	4.3	3.7	2.0	1.9
HFCs	36.9	103.2	120.2	123.5	129.5	129.4	125.7
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances ^a	0.3	74.3	104.2	109.4	112.3	115.5	120.0
HCFC-22 Production	36.4	28.6	15.8	13.8	17.0	13.6	5.4
Semiconductor Manufacturing HFCs	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
PFCs	20.8	13.5	6.2	6.0	7.5	6.7	5.6
Aluminum Production	18.5	8.6	3.0	2.5	3.8	2.7	1.6
Semiconductor Manufacturing PFCs	2.2	4.9	3.2	3.5	3.7	4.0	4.0
SF₆	34.4	20.1	19.0	17.9	16.7	16.1	14.8
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	28.4	16.0	15.1	14.1	13.2	13.3	12.8
Semiconductor Manufacturing SF ₆	0.5	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.9	1.0
Magnesium Production and Processing	5.4	3.0	2.9	2.9	2.6	1.9	1.1
Total	315.8	348.8	334.1	339.4	350.9	331.7	282.9

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

^a Small amounts of PFC emissions also result from this source.

Table 4-2: Emissions from Industrial Processes (Gg)

Gas/Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO₂	188,431	184,919	165,384	169,870	172,592	159,470	119,010
Iron and Steel Production and Metallurgical Coke Production	99,528	85,935	65,925	68,772	71,045	66,015	41,871

<i>Iron and Steel</i>							
<i>Production</i>	97,058	83,740	63,882	66,852	68,991	63,682	40,914
<i>Metallurgical Coke</i>							
<i>Production</i>	2,470	2,195	2,043	1,919	2,054	2,334	956
Cement Production	33,278	40,405	45,197	45,792	44,538	40,531	29,018
Ammonia Production & Urea Consumption	16,831	16,402	12,849	12,300	14,038	11,949	11,797
Lime Production	11,533	14,088	14,379	15,100	14,595	14,330	11,223
Limestone and Dolomite Use	5,127	5,056	6,768	8,035	7,702	6,276	7,649
Soda Ash Production and Consumption	4,141	4,181	4,228	4,162	4,140	4,111	4,265
Aluminum Production	6,831	6,086	4,142	3,801	4,251	4,477	3,009
Petrochemical Production	3,311	4,479	4,181	3,837	3,931	3,449	2,735
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	1,416	1,421	1,321	1,709	1,867	1,780	1,763
Titanium Dioxide Production	1,195	1,752	1,755	1,836	1,930	1,809	1,541
Ferroalloy Production	2,152	1,893	1,392	1,505	1,552	1,599	1,469
Phosphoric Acid Production	1,529	1,382	1,386	1,167	1,166	1,187	1,035
Zinc Production	667	997	1,088	1,088	1,081	1,230	966
Lead Production	516	594	553	560	562	551	525
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	375	248	219	207	196	175	145
CH₄	88	104	86	83	82	75	58
Petrochemical Production	41	59	51	48	48	43	40
Iron and Steel Production and Metallurgical Coke Production	46	44	34	35	33	31	17
<i>Iron and Steel</i>							
<i>Production</i>	46	44	34	35	33	31	17
<i>Metallurgical Coke</i>							
<i>Production</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Ferroalloy Production	1	1	+	+	+	+	+
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	1	1	+	+	+	+	+
N₂O	108	80	69	66	74	60	53
Nitric Acid Production	57	63	53	52	62	53	47
Adipic Acid Production	51	18	16	14	12	7	6
HFCs	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances ^a	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
HCFC-22 Production	3	2	1	1	1	1	+
Semiconductor Manufacturing HFCs	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
PFCs	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
Aluminum Production Semiconductor Manufacturing PFCs	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
SF₆	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Semiconductor	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

Manufacturing SF ₆ Magnesium Production and Processing	+		+		+	+	+	+	+
+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg M (Mixture of gases)									
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.									
^a Small amounts of PFC emissions also result from this source.									

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification Procedures

Tier 1 quality assurance and quality control procedures have been performed for all industrial process sources. For industrial process sources of CO₂ and CH₄ emissions, a detailed plan was developed and implemented. This plan was based on the overall U.S. strategy, but was tailored to include specific procedures recommended for these sources. Two types of checks were performed using this plan: (1) general, or Tier 1, procedures that focus on annual procedures and checks to be used when gathering, maintaining, handling, documenting, checking, and archiving the data, supporting documents, and files, and (2) source-category specific, or Tier 2, procedures that focus on procedures and checks of the emission factors, activity data, and methodologies used for estimating emissions from the relevant industrial process sources. Examples of these procedures include checks to ensure that activity data and emission estimates are consistent with historical trends; that, where possible, consistent and reputable data sources are used across sources; that interpolation or extrapolation techniques are consistent across sources; and that common datasets and factors are used where applicable.

The general method employed to estimate emissions for industrial processes, as recommended by the IPCC, involves multiplying production data (or activity data) for each process by an emission factor per unit of production. The uncertainty in the emission estimates is therefore generally a function of a combination of the uncertainties surrounding the production and emission factor variables. Uncertainty of activity data and the associated probability density functions for industrial processes CO₂ sources were estimated based on expert assessment of available qualitative and quantitative information. Uncertainty estimates and probability density functions for the emission factors used to calculate emissions from this source were devised based on IPCC recommendations.

Activity data is obtained through a survey of manufacturers conducted by various organizations (specified within each source); the uncertainty of the activity data is a function of the reliability of plant-level production data and is influenced by the completeness of the survey response. The emission factors used were either derived using calculations that assume precise and efficient chemical reactions, or were based upon empirical data in published references. As a result, uncertainties in the emission coefficients can be attributed to, among other things, inefficiencies in the chemical reactions associated with each production process or to the use of empirically-derived emission factors that are biased; therefore, they may not represent U.S. national averages. Additional assumptions are described within each source.

The uncertainty analysis performed to quantify uncertainties associated with the 2009 inventory estimates from industrial processes continues a multi-year process for developing credible quantitative uncertainty estimates for these source categories using the IPCC Tier 2 approach. As the process continues, the type and the characteristics of the actual probability density functions underlying the input variables are identified and better characterized (resulting in development of more reliable inputs for the model, including accurate characterization of correlation between variables), based primarily on expert judgment. Accordingly, the quantitative uncertainty estimates reported in this section should be considered illustrative and as iterations of ongoing efforts to produce accurate uncertainty estimates. The correlation among data used for estimating emissions for different sources can influence the uncertainty analysis of each individual source. While the uncertainty analysis recognizes very significant connections among sources, a more comprehensive approach that accounts for all linkages will be identified as the uncertainty analysis moves forward.

4.1. Cement Production (IPCC Source Category 2A1)

Cement production is an energy- and raw-material-intensive process that results in the generation of CO₂ from both

the energy consumed in making the cement and the chemical process itself.¹⁰² Cement is produced in 36 states and Puerto Rico. CO₂ emitted from the chemical process of cement production is the second largest source of industrial CO₂ emissions in the United States.

During the cement production process, calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) is heated in a cement kiln at a temperature of about 1,450°C (2,400°F) to form lime (i.e., calcium oxide or CaO) and CO₂ in a process known as calcination or calcining. A very small amount of carbonates other than CaCO₃ and non-carbonates are also present in the raw material; however, for calculation purposes all of the raw material is assumed to be CaCO₃. Next, the lime is combined with silica-containing materials to produce clinker (an intermediate product), with the earlier by-product CO₂ being released to the atmosphere. The clinker is then allowed to cool, mixed with a small amount of gypsum and potentially other materials (e.g., slag), and used to make portland cement.¹⁰³

In 2009, U.S. clinker production—including Puerto Rico—totaled 56,116 thousand metric tons (USGS 2011). The resulting CO₂ emissions were estimated to be 29.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. (29,018 Gg) (see Table 4-3).

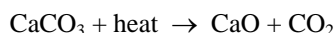
Table 4-3: CO₂ Emissions from Cement Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	33.3	33,278
2000	40.4	40,405
2005	45.2	45,197
2006	45.8	45,792
2007	44.5	44,538
2008	40.5	40,531
2009	29.0	29,018

Greenhouse gas emissions from cement production grew every year from 1991 through 2006, but have decreased since. Emissions since 1990 have decreased by 13 percent. Emissions decreased significantly between 2008 and 2009, due to the economic recession and associated decrease in demand for construction materials. Cement continues to be a critical component of the construction industry; therefore, the availability of public construction funding, as well as overall economic conditions, have considerable influence on cement production.

Methodology

CO₂ emissions from cement production are created by the chemical reaction of carbon-containing minerals (i.e., calcining limestone) in the cement kiln. While in the kiln, limestone is broken down into CO₂ and lime with the CO₂ released to the atmosphere. The quantity of CO₂ emitted during cement production is directly proportional to the lime content of the clinker. During calcination, each mole of CaCO₃ (i.e., limestone) heated in the clinker kiln forms one mole of lime (CaO) and one mole of CO₂:



CO₂ emissions were estimated by applying an emission factor, in tons of CO₂ released per ton of clinker produced, to the total amount of clinker produced. The emission factor used in this analysis is the product of the average lime fraction for clinker of 65 percent and a constant reflecting the mass of CO₂ released per unit of lime (van Oss 2008). This calculation yields an emission factor of 0.51 tons of CO₂ per ton of clinker produced, which was determined as follows:

¹⁰² The CO₂ emissions related to the consumption of energy for cement manufacture are accounted for under CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion in the Energy chapter.

¹⁰³ Approximately three percent of total clinker production is used to produce masonry cement, which is produced using plasticizers (e.g., ground limestone, lime) and portland cement (USGS 2011). CO₂ emissions that result from the production of lime used to create masonry cement are included in the Lime Manufacture source category.

$$EF_{\text{Clinker}} = 0.6460 \text{ CaO} \times \left[\frac{44.01 \text{ g/mole CO}_2}{56.08 \text{ g/mole CaO}} \right] = 0.5070 \text{ tons CO}_2/\text{ton clinker}$$

During clinker production, some of the clinker precursor materials remain in the kiln as non-calcinated, partially calcinated, or fully calcinated cement kiln dust (CKD). The emissions attributable to the calcinated portion of the CKD are not accounted for by the clinker emission factor. The IPCC recommends that these additional CKD CO₂ emissions should be estimated as two percent of the CO₂ emissions calculated from clinker production.¹⁰⁴ Total cement production emissions were calculated by adding the emissions from clinker production to the emissions assigned to CKD (IPCC 2006).¹⁰⁵

The 1990 through 2009 activity data for clinker production (see Table 4-4) were obtained from USGS (US Bureau of Mines 1990 through 1993, USGS 1995 through 2011). The data were compiled by USGS through questionnaires sent to domestic clinker and cement manufacturing plants.

Table 4-4: Clinker Production (Gg)

Year	Clinker
1990	64,355
2000	78,138
2005	87,405
2006	88,555
2007	86,130
2008	78,382
2009	56,116

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The uncertainties contained in these estimates are primarily due to uncertainties in the lime content of clinker and in the percentage of CKD recycled inside the cement kiln. Uncertainty is also associated with the assumption that all calcium-containing raw materials are CaCO₃, when a small percentage likely consists of other carbonate and non-carbonate raw materials. The lime content of clinker varies from 60 to 67 percent; 65 percent is used as a representative value (van Oss 2008). CKD loss can range from 1.5 to 8 percent depending upon plant specifications. Additionally, some amount of CO₂ is reabsorbed when the cement is used for construction. As cement reacts with water, alkaline substances such as calcium hydroxide are formed. During this curing process, these compounds may react with CO₂ in the atmosphere to create calcium carbonate. This reaction only occurs in roughly the outer 0.2 inches of surface area. Because the amount of CO₂ reabsorbed is thought to be minimal, it was not estimated.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-5 (see Table 4-5 for details).

			Bound	Bound	Bound	Bound
Cement Production	CO ₂	29.0	25.3	33.0	-13%	+14%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Recalculations Discussion

Activity data for the time series was revised for the current Inventory. Specifically, clinker production data for 1995 through 2008 (excluding 2001) were revised to reflect published USGS data. In a given Inventory year, advance clinker data is typically used. This data is typically finalized several years later by USGS. The published time series was reviewed to ensure time series consistency. Published data generally differed from advance data by approximately 1,000 metric tons, or 1 percent of the total. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

Future improvements to the cement source category involve evaluating facility level greenhouse gas emissions data as a basis for improving emissions calculations from cement production. Beginning in 2010, all U.S. cement production facilities are required to monitor, calculate and report their greenhouse gas emissions to EPA through its Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program. Under the program, EPA will obtain data for 2010 emissions from facilities based on use of higher tier methods and in particular assess how this data could be used to improve the overall method for calculating emissions from the U.S. cement industry, including also improving emission factors for clinker production and CKD.

4.2. Lime Production (IPCC Source Category 2A2)

Lime is an important manufactured product with many industrial, chemical, and environmental applications. Its major uses are in steel making, flue gas desulfurization systems at coal-fired electric power plants, construction, and water purification. For U.S. operations, the term “lime” actually refers to a variety of chemical compounds. These include calcium oxide (CaO), or high-calcium quicklime; calcium hydroxide (Ca(OH)₂), or hydrated lime; dolomitic quicklime ([CaO•MgO]); and dolomitic hydrate ([Ca(OH)₂•MgO] or [Ca(OH)₂•Mg(OH)₂]).

Lime production involves three main processes: stone preparation, calcination, and hydration. CO₂ is generated during the calcination stage, when limestone—mostly calcium carbonate (CaCO₃)—is roasted at high temperatures in a kiln to produce CaO and CO₂. The CO₂ is given off as a gas and is normally emitted to the atmosphere. Some of the CO₂ generated during the production process, however, is recovered at some facilities for use in sugar refining and precipitated calcium carbonate (PCC) production.¹⁰⁶ In certain additional applications, lime reabsorbs CO₂ during use.

Lime production in the United States—including Puerto Rico—was reported to be 15,781 thousand metric tons in 2009 (USGS 2010). This production resulted in estimated CO₂ emissions of 11.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (11,223 Gg) (see Table 4-6 and Table 4-7).

Table 4-6: CO₂ Emissions from Lime Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	11.5	11,533
2000	14.1	14,088
2005	14.4	14,379
2006	15.1	15,100
2007	14.6	14,595
2008	14.3	14,330
2009	11.2	11,223

¹⁰⁶ PCC is obtained from the reaction of CO₂ with calcium hydroxide. It is used as a filler and/or coating in the paper, food, and plastic industries.

Table 4-7: Potential, Recovered, and Net CO₂ Emissions from Lime Production (Gg)

Year	Potential	Recovered*	Net Emissions
1990	12,004	471	11,533
2000	14,872	784	14,088
2005	15,131	752	14,379
2006	15,825	725	15,100
2007	15,264	669	14,595
2008	14,977	647	14,330
2009	11,913	690	11,223

* For sugar refining and PCC production.

Note: Totals may not sum due to rounding

Lime production in 2009 decreased by 21 percent compared to 2008, owing mostly to a significant downturn in major markets such as construction and steel. Because of this significant downturn, overall lime production in 2009 was approximately equal to production in 1990. The contemporary lime market is approximately distributed across five end-use categories as follows: environmental uses, 34 percent; metallurgical uses, 31 percent; chemical and industrial uses, 25 percent; construction uses, 9 percent; and refractory dolomite, 1 percent. In the construction sector, lime is used to improve durability in plaster, stucco, and mortars, as well as to stabilize soils. Consumption for metallurgical uses accounted for 57 percent of the overall decrease in lime consumption (USGS 2010).

Methodology

During the calcination stage of lime production, CO₂ is given off as a gas and normally exits the system with the stack gas. To calculate emissions, the amounts of high-calcium and dolomitic lime produced were multiplied by their respective emission factors. The emission factor is the product of a constant reflecting the mass of CO₂ released per unit of lime and the average calcium plus magnesium oxide (CaO + MgO) content for lime (95 percent for both types of lime) (IPCC 2006). The emission factors were calculated as follows:

For high-calcium lime:

$$[(44.01 \text{ g/mole CO}_2) \div (56.08 \text{ g/mole CaO})] \times (0.9500 \text{ CaO/lime}) = 0.7455 \text{ g CO}_2/\text{g lime}$$

For dolomitic lime:

$$[(88.02 \text{ g/mole CO}_2) \div (96.39 \text{ g/mole CaO})] \times (0.9500 \text{ CaO/lime}) = 0.8675 \text{ g CO}_2/\text{g lime}$$

Production was adjusted to remove the mass of chemically combined water found in hydrated lime, determined according to the molecular weight ratios of H₂O to (Ca(OH)₂ and [Ca(OH)₂•Mg(OH)₂]) (IPCC 2000). These factors set the chemically combined water content to 24.3 percent for high-calcium hydrated lime, and 27.2 percent for dolomitic hydrated lime.

Lime emission estimates were multiplied by a factor of 1.02 to account for lime kiln dust (LKD), which is produced as a by-product during the production of lime (IPCC 2006).

Lime emission estimates were further adjusted to account for PCC producers and sugar refineries that recover CO₂ emitted by lime production facilities for use as an input into production or refining processes. For CO₂ recovery by sugar refineries, lime consumption estimates from USGS were multiplied by a CO₂ recovery factor to determine the total amount of CO₂ recovered from lime production facilities. According to industry surveys, sugar refineries use captured CO₂ for 100 percent of their CO₂ input (Lutter 2009). CO₂ recovery by PCC producers was determined by multiplying estimates for the percentage CO₂ of production weight for PCC production at lime plants by a CO₂ recovery factor based on the amount of purchased CO₂ by PCC manufacturers (Prillaman 2008 through 2010). As data were only available starting in 2007, CO₂ recovery for the period 1990 through 2006 was extrapolated by determining a ratio of PCC production at lime facilities to lime consumption for PCC (USGS 1992 through 2008).

Lime production data (high-calcium- and dolomitic-quicklime, high-calcium- and dolomitic-hydrated, and dead-burned dolomite) for 1990 through 2009 (see Table 4-8) were obtained from USGS (1992 through 2010). Natural

hydraulic lime, which is produced from CaO and hydraulic calcium silicates, is not produced in the United States (USGS 2009). Total lime production was adjusted to account for the water content of hydrated lime by converting hydrate to oxide equivalent based on recommendations from the IPCC, and is presented in Table 4-9 (IPCC 2000). The CaO and CaO•MgO contents of lime were obtained from the IPCC (IPCC 2006). Since data for the individual lime types (high calcium and dolomitic) was not provided prior to 1997, total lime production for 1990 through 1996 was calculated according to the three year distribution from 1997 to 1999.

Table 4-8: High-Calcium- and Dolomitic-Quicklime, High-Calcium- and Dolomitic-Hydrated, and Dead-Burned-Dolomite Lime Production (Gg)

Year	High-Calcium Quicklime	Dolomitic Quicklime	High-Calcium Hydrated	Dolomitic Hydrated	Dead-Burned Dolomite
1990	11,166	2,234	1,781	319	342
2000	14,300	3,000	1,550	421	200
2005	14,100	2,990	2,220	474	200
2006	15,000	2,950	2,370	409	200
2007	14,700	2,700	2,240	352	200
2008	14,900	2,310	2,070	358	200
2009	11,800	1,830	1,690	261	200

Table 4-9: Adjusted Lime Production^a (Gg)

Year	High-Calcium	Dolomitic
1990	12,514	2,809
2000	15,473	3,506
2005	15,781	3,535
2006	16,794	3,448
2007	16,396	3,156
2008	16,467	2,771
2009	13,079	2,220

^a Minus water content of hydrated lime

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The uncertainties contained in these estimates can be attributed to slight differences in the chemical composition of these products and recovery rates for sugar refineries and PCC manufacturers located at lime plants. Although the methodology accounts for various formulations of lime, it does not account for the trace impurities found in lime,

The lime generated by these processes is not included in the USGS data for commercial lime consumption. In the pulping industry, mostly using the Kraft (sulfate) pulping process, lime is consumed in order to causticize a process liquor (green liquor) composed of sodium carbonate and sodium sulfide. The green liquor results from the dilution of the smelt created by combustion of the black liquor where biogenic C is present from the wood. Kraft mills recover the calcium carbonate “mud” after the causticizing operation and calcine it back into lime—thereby generating CO₂—for reuse in the pulping process. Although this re-generation of lime could be considered a lime manufacturing process, the CO₂ emitted during this process is mostly biogenic in origin, and therefore is not included in the industrial processes totals (Miner and Upton 2002). In accordance with IPCC methodological guidelines, any such emissions are calculated by accounting for net carbon (C) fluxes from changes in biogenic C reservoirs in wooded or crop lands (see Chapter 7).

In the case of water treatment plants, lime is used in the softening process. Some large water treatment plants may recover their waste calcium carbonate and calcine it into quicklime for reuse in the softening process. Further research is necessary to determine the degree to which lime recycling is practiced by water treatment plants in the United States.

Uncertainties also remain surrounding recovery rates used for sugar refining and PCC production. The recovery rate for sugar refineries is based on two sugar beet processing and refining facilities located in California that use 100 percent recovered CO₂ from lime plants (Lutter 2010). This analysis assumes that all sugar refineries located on-site at lime plants also use 100 percent recovered CO₂. The recovery rate for PCC producers located on-site at lime plants is based on the 2009 value for PCC manufactured at commercial lime plants, given by the National Lime Association (Prillaman 2010).

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-10. Lime CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 10.4 and 12.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This confidence level indicates a range of approximately 7 percent below and 10 percent above the emission estimate of 11.2 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-10: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Lime Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Lime Production	CO ₂	11.2	10.4	12.3	-7%	+10%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

No methodological or activity data changes to the time series were made to this source for the current Inventory. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

Future improvements to the lime source category involve evaluating facility level greenhouse gas emissions data as a basis for improving emissions calculations from lime production. Beginning in 2010, all U.S. lime production facilities are required to monitor, calculate and report their greenhouse gas emissions to EPA through its Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program. Under the program, EPA will obtain data for 2010 emissions from facilities based on use of higher tier methods and in particular assess how this data could be used to improve the overall method for calculating emissions from the U.S. lime industry, including improving emission factors for various lime types and LKD.

Future improvements to the lime source category will also involve continued research into CO₂ recovery associated with lime use during sugar refining and precipitate calcium carbonate (PCC) production. Currently, two sugar refining facilities in California have been identified to capture CO₂ produced in lime kilns located on the same site as the sugar refinery (Lutter 2010). Data on CO₂ production by these lime facilities is unavailable. Future work will

emissions of CO₂. In making calcium carbide, quicklime is mixed with coke and heated in electric furnaces. The regeneration of lime in this process is done using a waste calcium hydroxide (hydrated lime) $[\text{CaC}_2 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_2 + \text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2]$, not calcium carbonate $[\text{CaCO}_3]$. Thus, the calcium hydroxide is heated in the kiln to simply expel the water $[\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2 + \text{heat} \rightarrow \text{CaO} + \text{H}_2\text{O}]$ and no CO₂ is released.

include research to determine the number of sugar refineries that employ the carbonation technique, the percentage of these that use captured CO₂ from lime production facilities, and the amount of CO₂ recovered per unit of lime production. Future research will also aim to improve estimates of CO₂ recovered as part of the PCC production process using estimates of PCC production and CO₂ inputs rather than lime consumption by PCC facilities.

4.3. Limestone and Dolomite Use (IPCC Source Category 2A3)

Limestone (CaCO₃) and dolomite (CaCO₃MgCO₃)¹⁰⁹ are basic raw materials used by a wide variety of industries, including construction, agriculture, chemical, metallurgy, glass production, and environmental pollution control. Limestone is widely distributed throughout the world in deposits of varying sizes and degrees of purity. Large deposits of limestone occur in nearly every state in the United States, and significant quantities are extracted for industrial applications. For some of these applications, limestone is heated sufficiently enough to calcine the material and generate CO₂ as a by-product. Examples of such applications include limestone used as a flux or purifier in metallurgical furnaces, as a sorbent in flue gas desulfurization (FGD) systems for utility and industrial plants, or as a raw material in glass manufacturing and magnesium production.

In 2009, approximately 14,928 thousand metric tons of limestone and 3,020 thousand metric tons of dolomite were consumed for these emissive applications. Overall, usage of limestone and dolomite resulted in aggregate CO₂ emissions of 7.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. (7,649 Gg) (see Table 4-11 and Table 4-12). Overall, emissions have increased 49 percent from 1990 through 2009.

Table 4-11: CO₂ Emissions from Limestone & Dolomite Use (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Year	Flux Stone	Glass Making	FGD	Magnesium Production	Other Miscellaneous Uses	Total
1990	2.6	0.2	1.4	0.1	0.8	5.1
2000	2.1	0.4	1.8	0.1	0.7	5.1
2005	2.7	0.4	3.0	0.0	0.7	6.8
2006	4.5	0.7	2.1	0.0	0.7	8.0
2007	2.0	0.3	3.2	0.0	2.2	7.7
2008	1.0	0.4	3.8	0.0	1.1	6.3
2009	1.8	0.1	5.4	0.0	0.4	7.6

Notes: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. "Other miscellaneous uses" include chemical stone, mine dusting or acid water treatment, acid neutralization, and sugar refining.

Table 4-12: CO₂ Emissions from Limestone & Dolomite Use (Gg)

Year	Flux Stone	Glass Making	FGD	Magnesium Production	Other Miscellaneous Uses	Total
1990	2,593	217	1,433	64	819	5,127
2000	2,104	371	1,787	73	722	5,056
2005	2,650	425	2,975	0	718	6,768
2006	4,492	747	2,061	0	735	8,035
2007	1,959	333	3,179	0	2,231	7,702
2008	974	387	3,801	0	1,114	6,276
2009	1,785	61	5,406	0	396	7,649

Methodology

CO₂ emissions were calculated by multiplying the quantity of limestone or dolomite consumed by the average C

¹⁰⁹ Limestone and dolomite are collectively referred to as limestone by the industry, and intermediate varieties are seldom distinguished.

content, 12.0 percent for limestone and 13.0 percent for dolomite (based on stoichiometry), and converting this value to CO₂. This methodology was used for flux stone, glass manufacturing, flue gas desulfurization systems,

Uncertainty and Time Series Consistency

The uncertainty levels presented in this section arise in part due to variations in the chemical composition of limestone. In addition to calcium carbonate, limestone may contain smaller amounts of magnesia, silica, and sulfur, among other minerals. The exact specifications for limestone or dolomite used as flux stone vary with the pyrometallurgical process and the kind of ore processed. Similarly, the quality of the limestone used for glass manufacturing will depend on the type of glass being manufactured.

The estimates below also account for uncertainty associated with activity data. Large fluctuations in reported consumption exist, reflecting year-to-year changes in the number of survey responders. The uncertainty resulting from a shifting survey population is exacerbated by the gaps in the time series of reports. The accuracy of distribution by end use is also uncertain because this value is reported by the manufacturer and not the end user. Additionally, there is significant inherent uncertainty associated with estimating withheld data points for specific end uses of limestone and dolomite. The uncertainty of the estimates for limestone used in glass making is especially high; however, since glass making accounts for a small percent of consumption, its contribution to the overall emissions estimate is low. Lastly, much of the limestone consumed in the United States is reported as “other unspecified uses;” therefore, it is difficult to accurately allocate this unspecified quantity to the correct end-uses.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-14. Limestone and Dolomite Use CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 6.6 and 9.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 13 percent below and 19 percent above the emission estimate of 7.6 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-14: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Limestone and Dolomite Use (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Limestone and Dolomite Use	CO ₂	7.6	6.6	9.1	-13%	+19%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

Future improvements to the limestone and dolomite source category involve research into the availability of limestone and dolomite end-use data, including from EPA’s new Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program. If sufficient data are available, limestone and dolomite used as process materials in source categories included in future inventories (e.g., glass production, other process use of carbonates) may be removed from this section and will be reported under the appropriate source categories. Additionally, future improvements include revisiting the methodology to distribute withheld data across emissive end-uses for all years to improve consistency of calculations.

4.4. Soda Ash Production and Consumption (IPCC Source Category 2A4)

Soda ash (sodium carbonate, Na₂CO₃) is a white crystalline solid that is readily soluble in water and strongly alkaline. Commercial soda ash is used as a raw material in a variety of industrial processes and in many familiar consumer products such as glass, soap and detergents, paper, textiles, and food. It is used primarily as an alkali, either in glass manufacturing or simply as a material that reacts with and neutralizes acids or acidic substances. Internationally, two types of soda ash are produced, natural and synthetic. The United States produces only natural soda ash and is second only to China in total soda ash production. Trona is the principal ore from which natural soda ash is made.

Only two states produce natural soda ash: Wyoming and California. Of these two states, only net emissions of CO₂

from Wyoming were calculated due to specifics regarding the production processes employed in the state.¹¹¹ During the production process used in Wyoming, trona ore is calcined to produce crude soda ash. CO₂ is generated as a by-product of this reaction, and is eventually emitted into the atmosphere. In addition, CO₂ may also be released when soda ash is consumed.

In 2009, CO₂ emissions from the production of soda ash from trona were approximately 1.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1,733 Gg). Soda ash consumption in the United States generated 2.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (2,532 Gg) in 2009. Total emissions from soda ash production and consumption in 2009 were 4.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (4,265 Gg) (see Table 4-15 and Table 4-16). Emissions have remained relatively constant with some fluctuations since 1990. These fluctuations were strongly related to the behavior of the export market and the U.S. economy. Emissions from the production of soda ash from trona in 2009 are currently proxied to emissions in 2008, due to lack of available data at time of publication. Emissions in 2009 increased by approximately 4 percent from emissions in 2008, and have also increased overall by 3 percent since 1990.

Table 4-15: CO₂ Emissions from Soda Ash Production and Consumption (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Year	Production	Consumption	Total
1990	1.4	2.7	4.1
2000	1.5	2.7	4.2
2005	1.7	2.6	4.2
2006	1.6	2.5	4.2
2007	1.7	2.5	4.1
2008	1.7	2.4	4.1
2009	1.7	2.5	4.3

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 4-16: CO₂ Emissions from Soda Ash Production and Consumption (Gg)

Year	Production	Consumption	Total
1990	1,431	2,710	4,141
2000	1,529	2,652	4,181
2005	1,655	2,573	4,228
2006	1,626	2,536	4,162
2007	1,675	2,465	4,140
2008	1,733	2,378	4,111
2009	1,733	2,532	4,265

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

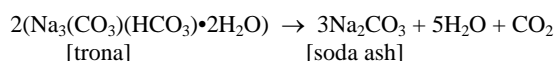
The United States represents about one-fourth of total world soda ash output. Based on final 2007 reported data, the estimated distribution of soda ash by end-use in 2008 was glass making, 49 percent; chemical production, 30 percent; soap and detergent manufacturing, 8 percent; distributors, 5 percent; flue gas desulfurization, 2 percent; water treatment, 2 percent; pulp and paper production, 2 percent; and miscellaneous, 3 percent (USGS 2009). The same distribution by end-use is currently assumed for 2009, due to lack of available data at time of publication.

¹¹¹ In California, soda ash is manufactured using sodium carbonate-bearing brines instead of trona ore. To extract the sodium carbonate, the complex brines are first treated with CO₂ in carbonation towers to convert the sodium carbonate into sodium bicarbonate, which then precipitates from the brine solution. The precipitated sodium bicarbonate is then calcined back into sodium carbonate. Although CO₂ is generated as a by-product, the CO₂ is recovered and recycled for use in the carbonation stage and is not emitted. A third state, Colorado, produced soda ash until the plant was idled in 2004. The lone producer of sodium bicarbonate no longer mines trona in the state. For a brief time, NaHCO₃ was produced using soda ash feedstocks mined in Wyoming and shipped to Colorado. Because the trona is mined in Wyoming, the production numbers given by the USGS included the feedstocks mined in Wyoming and shipped to Colorado. In this way, the sodium bicarbonate production that took place in Colorado was accounted for in the Wyoming numbers.

Although the United States continues to be a major supplier of world soda ash, China, which surpassed the United States in soda ash production in 2003, is the world's leading producer. While Chinese soda ash production appears to be stabilizing, U.S. competition in Asian markets is expected to continue. Despite this competition, U.S. soda ash production is expected to increase by about 0.5 percent annually (USGS 2008).

Methodology

During the production process, trona ore is calcined in a rotary kiln and chemically transformed into a crude soda ash that requires further processing. CO₂ and water are generated as by-products of the calcination process. CO₂ emissions from the calcination of trona can be estimated based on the following chemical reaction:



Based on this formula, approximately 10.27 metric tons of trona are required to generate one metric ton of CO₂, or an emission factor of 0.097 metric tons CO₂ per metric ton trona (IPCC 2006). Thus, the 17.8 million metric tons of trona mined in 2008 for soda ash production (USGS 2008) resulted in CO₂ emissions of approximately 1.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1,733 Gg). The same production and associated emissions estimates are assumed for 2009 due to lack of available data at time of publication.

Once produced, most soda ash is consumed in glass and chemical production, with minor amounts in soap and detergents, pulp and paper, flue gas desulfurization and water treatment. As soda ash is consumed for these purposes, additional CO₂ is usually emitted. In these applications, it is assumed that one mole of C is released for every mole of soda ash used. Thus, approximately 0.113 metric tons of C (or 0.415 metric tons of CO₂) are released for every metric ton of soda ash consumed.

The activity data for trona production and soda ash consumption (see Table 4-17) were taken from USGS (1994 through 2008). Data for soda ash consumption in 2009 was taken from USGS (2010) *Mineral Commodity Summary: Soda Ash*. Due to lack of 2009 trona production data at time of publication, the 2008 estimate is used as a proxy for 2009. Soda ash production and consumption data were collected by the USGS from voluntary surveys of the U.S. soda ash industry.

Table 4-17: Soda Ash Production and Consumption (Gg)

Year	Production*	Consumption
1990	14,700	6,530
2000	15,700	6,390
2005	17,000	6,200
2006	16,700	6,110
2007	17,200	5,940
2008	17,800	5,730
2009	17,800	6,100

* Soda ash produced from trona ore only.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Emission estimates from soda ash production have relatively low associated uncertainty levels in that reliable and accurate data sources are available for the emission factor and activity data. The primary source of uncertainty, however, results from the fact that emissions from soda ash consumption are dependent upon the type of processing employed by each end-use. Specific information characterizing the emissions from each end-use is limited. Therefore, there is uncertainty surrounding the emission factors from the consumption of soda ash.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-18. Soda Ash Production and Consumption CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 4.0 and 4.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 7 percent below and 7 percent above the emission estimate of 4.3 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-18: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Soda Ash Production and Consumption (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Soda Ash Production and Consumption	CO ₂	4.3	4.0	4.6	-7%	+7%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

Future inventories are anticipated to estimate emissions from glass production and other use of carbonates. These inventories will extract soda ash consumed for glass production and other use of carbonates from the current soda ash consumption emission estimates and include them under those sources.

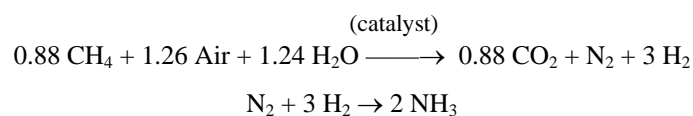
In addition, future improvements to the soda ash production category involve evaluating facility level greenhouse gas emissions data as a basis for improving emissions calculations from soda ash production. Beginning in 2010, all U.S. soda ash production facilities are required to monitor, calculate and report their greenhouse gas emissions to EPA through its Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program. Under the program, EPA will obtain data for 2010 emissions from facilities based on use of higher tier methods and in particular assess how this data could be used to improve the overall method for calculating emissions from the U.S. soda ash production industry, including also improving emission factors associated with trona consumption.

4.5. Ammonia Production (IPCC Source Category 2B1) and Urea Consumption

Emissions of CO₂ occur during the production of synthetic ammonia, primarily through the use of natural gas as a feedstock. The natural gas-based, naphtha-based, and petroleum coke-based processes produce CO₂ and hydrogen (H₂), the latter of which is used in the production of ammonia. One N production plant located in Kansas is producing ammonia from petroleum coke feedstock. In some plants the CO₂ produced is captured and used to produce urea. The brine electrolysis process for production of ammonia does not lead to process-based CO₂ emissions.

There are five principal process steps in synthetic ammonia production from natural gas feedstock. The primary reforming step converts CH₄ to CO₂, carbon monoxide (CO), and H₂ in the presence of a catalyst. Only 30 to 40 percent of the CH₄ feedstock to the primary reformer is converted to CO and CO₂. The secondary reforming step converts the remaining CH₄ feedstock to CO and CO₂. The CO in the process gas from the secondary reforming step (representing approximately 15 percent of the process gas) is converted to CO₂ in the presence of a catalyst, water, and air in the shift conversion step. CO₂ is removed from the process gas by the shift conversion process, and the hydrogen gas is combined with the nitrogen (N₂) gas in the process gas during the ammonia synthesis step to produce ammonia. The CO₂ is included in a waste gas stream with other process impurities and is absorbed by a scrubber solution. In regenerating the scrubber solution, CO₂ is released.

The conversion process for conventional steam reforming of CH₄, including primary and secondary reforming and the shift conversion processes, is approximately as follows:



To produce synthetic ammonia from petroleum coke, the petroleum coke is gasified and converted to CO₂ and H₂. These gases are separated, and the H₂ is used as a feedstock to the ammonia production process, where it is reacted with N₂ to form ammonia.

Not all of the CO₂ produced in the production of ammonia is emitted directly to the atmosphere. Both ammonia and CO₂ are used as raw materials in the production of urea [CO(NH₂)₂], which is another type of nitrogenous fertilizer that contains C as well as N. The chemical reaction that produces urea is:



Urea is consumed for a variety of uses, including as a nitrogenous fertilizer, in urea-formaldehyde resins, and as a deicing agent (TIG 2002). The C in the consumed urea is assumed to be released into the environment as CO₂ during use. Therefore, the CO₂ produced by ammonia production that is subsequently used in the production of urea is still emitted during urea consumption. The majority of CO₂ emissions associated with urea consumption are those that result from its use as a fertilizer. These emissions are accounted for in the Cropland Remaining Cropland section of the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter. CO₂ emissions associated with other uses of urea are accounted for in this chapter. Net emissions of CO₂ from ammonia production in 2009 were 11.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (11,797 Gg), and are summarized in Table 4-19 and Table 4-20. Emissions of CO₂ from urea consumed for non-fertilizer purposes in 2009 totaled 3.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (3,942 Gg), and are summarized in Table 4-19 and Table 4-20. The decrease in ammonia production in recent years is due to several factors, including market fluctuations and high natural gas prices. Ammonia production relies on natural gas as both a feedstock and a fuel, and as such, domestic producers are competing with imports from countries with lower gas prices. If natural gas prices remain high, it is likely that domestically produced ammonia will continue to decrease with increasing ammonia imports (EEA 2004).

Table 4-19: CO₂ Emissions from Ammonia Production and Urea Consumption (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Ammonia Production	13.0	12.2	9.2	8.8	9.1	7.9	7.9
Urea Consumption ^a	3.8	4.2	3.7	3.5	5.0	4.1	3.9
Total	16.8	16.4	12.8	12.3	14.0	11.9	11.8

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

^a Urea Consumption is for non-fertilizer purposes only. Urea consumed as a fertilizer is accounted for in the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter.

Table 4-20: CO₂ Emissions from Ammonia Production and Urea Consumption (Gg)

Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Ammonia							
Production	13,047	12,172	9,196	8,781	9,074	7,883	7,855
Urea Consumption ^a	3,784	4,231	3,653	3,519	4,963	4,066	3,942
Total	16,831	16,402	12,849	12,300	14,038	11,949	11,797

^a Urea Consumption is for non-fertilizer purposes only. Urea consumed as a fertilizer is accounted for in the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter.

Methodology

The calculation methodology for non-combustion CO₂ emissions from production of nitrogenous fertilizers from natural gas feedstock is based on a CO₂ emission factor published by the European Fertilizer Manufacturers Association (EFMA). The selected EFMA factor is based on ammonia production technologies that are similar to those employed in the United States. The CO₂ emission factor (1.2 metric tons CO₂/metric ton NH₃) is applied to the percent of total annual domestic ammonia production from natural gas feedstock. Emissions from fuels consumed for energy purposes during the production of ammonia are accounted for in the Energy chapter. Emissions of CO₂ from ammonia production are then adjusted to account for the use of some of the CO₂ produced from ammonia production as a raw material in the production of urea. For each ton of urea produced, 8.8 of every 12 tons of CO₂ are consumed and 6.8 of every 12 tons of ammonia are consumed (IPCC 2006, EFMA 2000). The CO₂ emissions reported for ammonia production are therefore reduced by a factor of 0.73 multiplied by total annual domestic urea production. Total CO₂ emissions resulting from nitrogenous fertilizer production do not change as a result of this calculation, but some of the CO₂ emissions are attributed to ammonia production and some of the CO₂ emissions are attributed to urea consumption. Those CO₂ emissions that result from the use of urea as a fertilizer are accounted for in the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter.

The total amount of urea consumed for non-agricultural purposes is estimated by deducting the quantity of urea fertilizer applied to agricultural lands, which is obtained directly from the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry Chapter and is reported in Table 4-21, from total U.S. production. Total urea production is estimated based on the

amount of urea produced plus the sum of net urea imports and exports. CO₂ emissions associated with urea that is used for non-fertilizer purposes are estimated using a factor of 0.73 tons of CO₂ per ton of urea consumed.

All ammonia production and subsequent urea production are assumed to be from the same process—conventional catalytic reforming of natural gas feedstock, with the exception of ammonia production from petroleum coke feedstock at one plant located in Kansas. The CO₂ emission factor for production of ammonia from petroleum coke is based on plant specific data, wherein all C contained in the petroleum coke feedstock that is not used for urea production is assumed to be emitted to the atmosphere as CO₂ (Bark 2004). Ammonia and urea are assumed to be manufactured in the same manufacturing complex, as both the raw materials needed for urea production are produced by the ammonia production process. The CO₂ emission factor (3.57 metric tons CO₂/metric ton NH₃) is applied to the percent of total annual domestic ammonia production from petroleum coke feedstock.

The emission factor of 1.2 metric ton CO₂/metric ton NH₃ for production of ammonia from natural gas feedstock was taken from the EFMA Best Available Techniques publication, Production of Ammonia (EFMA 1995). The EFMA reported an emission factor range of 1.15 to 1.30 metric ton CO₂/metric ton NH₃, with 1.2 metric ton CO₂/metric ton NH₃ as a typical value. Technologies (e.g., catalytic reforming process) associated with this factor are found to closely resemble those employed in the U.S. for use of natural gas as a feedstock. The EFMA reference also indicates that more than 99 percent of the CH₄ feedstock to the catalytic reforming process is ultimately converted to CO₂. The emission factor of 3.57 metric ton CO₂/metric ton NH₃ for production of ammonia from petroleum coke feedstock was developed from plant-specific ammonia production data and petroleum coke feedstock utilization data for the ammonia plant located in Kansas (Bark 2004). As noted earlier, emissions from fuels consumed for energy purposes during the production of ammonia are accounted for in the Energy chapter. Ammonia production data (see Table 4-21) was obtained from Coffeyville Resources (Coffeyville 2005, 2006, 2007a, 2007b, 2009, 2010) and the Census Bureau of the U.S. Department of Commerce (U.S. Census Bureau 1991 through 1994, 1998 through 2010) as reported in Current Industrial Reports Fertilizer Materials and Related Products annual and quarterly reports. Urea-ammonia nitrate production was obtained from Coffeyville Resources (Coffeyville 2005, 2006, 2007a, 2007b, 2009, 2010). Urea production data for 1990 through 2008 were obtained from the Minerals Yearbook: Nitrogen (USGS 1994 through 2009). Urea production data for 2009 was obtained from the U.S. Bureau of the Census (2010). Import data for urea were obtained from the U.S. Census Bureau Current Industrial Reports Fertilizer Materials and Related Products annual and quarterly reports for 1997 through 2009 (U.S. Census Bureau 1998 through 2010), The Fertilizer Institute (TFI 2002) for 1993 through 1996, and the United States International Trade Commission Interactive Tariff and Trade DataWeb (U.S. ITC 2002) for 1990 through 1992 (see Table 4-21). Urea export data for 1990 through 2009 were taken from U.S. Fertilizer Import/Exports from USDA Economic Research Service Data Sets (U.S. Department of Agriculture 2010).

Table 4-21: Ammonia Production, Urea Production, Urea Net Imports, and Urea Exports (Gg)

Year	Ammonia Production	Urea Production	Urea Applied as Fertilizer	Urea Imports	Urea Exports
1990	15,425	7,450	3,296	1,860	854
2000	14,342	6,910	4,382	3,904	663
2005	10,143	5,270	4,779	5,026	536
2006	9,962	5,410	4,985	5,029	656
2007	10,393	5,590	5,097	6,546	271
2008	9,570	5,240	4,925	5,459	230
2009	9,372	5,084	4,295	5,505	289

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The uncertainties presented in this section are primarily due to how accurately the emission factor used represents an average across all ammonia plants using natural gas feedstock. Uncertainties are also associated with natural gas feedstock consumption data for the U.S. ammonia industry as a whole, the assumption that all ammonia production and subsequent urea production was from the same process—conventional catalytic reforming of natural gas feedstock, with the exception of one ammonia production plant located in Kansas that is manufacturing ammonia from petroleum coke feedstock. It is also assumed that ammonia and urea are produced at collocated plants from the

same natural gas raw material.

Such recovery may or may not affect the overall estimate of CO₂ emissions depending upon the end use to which the recovered CO₂ is applied. Further research is required to determine whether byproduct CO₂ is being recovered from other ammonia production plants for application to end uses that are not accounted for elsewhere.

Additional uncertainty is associated with the estimate of urea consumed for non-fertilizer purposes. Emissions associated with this consumption are reported in this source category, while those associated with consumption as fertilizer are reported in Cropland Remaining Cropland section of the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter. The amount of urea used for non-fertilizer purposes is estimated based on estimates of urea production, net urea imports, and the amount of urea used as fertilizer. There is uncertainty associated with the accuracy of these estimates as well as the fact that each estimate is obtained from a different data source.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-22. Ammonia Production and Urea Consumption CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 10.9 and 12.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 7 percent below and 8 percent above the emission estimate of 11.8 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-22: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Ammonia Production and Urea Consumption (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ammonia Production and Urea Consumption	CO ₂	11.8	10.9	12.7	-7%	+8%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Recalculations Discussion

The uncertainty range (-7 percent/+8 percent) has decreased by 7 percent compared to the uncertainty range in the previous Inventory (±11 percent), due to two stoichiometric variables being removed from the uncertainty analysis.

Planned Improvements

Future improvements to the ammonia production and urea consumption category involve evaluating facility level greenhouse gas emissions data as a basis for improving emissions calculations from ammonia production. Beginning in 2010, all U.S. ammonia production facilities are required to monitor, calculate and report their greenhouse gas emissions to EPA through its Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program. Under the program, EPA will obtain data for 2010 emissions from facilities based on use of higher tier methods and in particular assess how this data could be used to improve the overall method for calculating emissions from U.S. ammonia production. Specifically, the planned improvements include assessing data to update the emission factors to include both fuel and feedstock CO₂ emissions and incorporate CO₂ capture and storage. Methodologies will also be updated if additional ammonia-production plants are found to use hydrocarbons other than natural gas for ammonia production. Additional efforts will be made to find consistent data sources for urea consumption and to report emissions from this consumption appropriately as defined.

4.6. Nitric Acid Production (IPCC Source Category 2B2)

Nitric acid (HNO₃) is an inorganic compound used primarily to make synthetic commercial fertilizers. It is also a major component in the production of adipic acid—a feedstock for nylon—and explosives. Virtually all of the nitric acid produced in the United States is manufactured by the catalytic oxidation of ammonia (EPA 1997). During this reaction, N₂O is formed as a by-product and is released from reactor vents into the atmosphere.

Currently, the nitric acid industry controls for emissions of NO and NO₂ (i.e., NO_x). As such, the industry in the US uses a combination of non-selective catalytic reduction (NSCR) and selective catalytic reduction (SCR) technologies. In the process of destroying NO_x, NSCR systems are also very effective at destroying N₂O. However, NSCR units are generally not preferred in modern plants because of high energy costs and associated high gas temperatures. NSCRs were widely installed in nitric plants built between 1971 and 1977. Approximately 25 percent of nitric acid plants use NSCR and they represent 15.3 percent of estimated national production (EPA 2010a). The remaining 84.7 percent of production occurs using SCR or extended absorption, neither of which is known to reduce N₂O emissions.

N₂O emissions from this source were estimated to be 14.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. (47 Gg) in 2009 (see Table 4-23). Emissions from nitric acid production have decreased by 18 percent since 1990, with the trend in the time series closely tracking the changes in production. Emissions decreased 11.4 percent between 2008 and 2009. Emissions have decreased by 30.8 percent since 1997, the highest year of production in the time series.

Table 4-23: N₂O Emissions from Nitric Acid Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	17.7	57
2000	19.4	63
2005	16.5	53
2006	16.2	52
2007	19.2	62
2008	16.4	53
2009	14.6	47

Methodology

N₂O emissions were calculated by multiplying nitric acid production by the amount of N₂O emitted per unit of nitric acid produced. The emission factor was determined as a weighted average of two known emission factors: 2 kg N₂O/metric ton HNO₃ produced at plants using non-selective catalytic reduction (NSCR) systems and 9 kg N₂O/metric ton HNO₃ produced at plants not equipped with NSCR (IPCC 2006). In the process of destroying NO_x, NSCR systems destroy 80 to 90 percent of the N₂O, which is accounted for in the emission factor of 2 kg N₂O/metric ton HNO₃. Approximately 25 percent of HNO₃ plants in the United States are equipped with NSCR representing 15.3 percent of estimated national production (EPA 2010a). Hence, the emission factor is equal to $(9 \times 0.847) + (2 \times 0.153) = 7.9$ kg N₂O per metric ton HNO₃.

Nitric acid production data for 1990 through 2002 were obtained from the U.S. Census Bureau, Current Industrial Reports (2006). Production data for 2003 were obtained from the U.S. Census Bureau, Current Industrial Reports (2008). Production data for 2004 through 2009 were obtained from the U.S. Census Bureau, Current Industrial Reports (2010) (see Table 4-24).

Table 4-24: Nitric Acid Production (Gg)

Year	Gg
1990	7,195
2000	7,900
2005	6,711
2006	6,572
2007	7,827
2008	6,686
2009	5,924

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The overall uncertainty associated with the 2009 N₂O emissions estimate from nitric acid production was calculated using the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006) Tier 2 methodology.

Uncertainty associated with the parameters used to estimate N₂O emissions included that of production data, the share of U.S. nitric acid production attributable to each emission abatement technology over the time series, and the emission factors applied to each abatement technology type.

The results of this Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-25. N₂O emissions from nitric acid production were estimated to be between 8.8 and 20.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 40 percent below to 42 percent above the 2009 emissions estimate of 14.6 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-25: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for N₂O Emissions from Nitric Acid Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
		Estimate	(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
		(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Nitric Acid Production	N ₂ O	14.6	8.8	20.7	-40%	+42%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

Future improvements to the nitric acid production category involve evaluating facility level greenhouse gas emissions data as a basis for improving emissions calculations from nitric acid production. Beginning in 2010, all U.S. nitric acid production facilities are required to monitor, calculate and report their greenhouse gas emissions to EPA through its Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program. Under the program, EPA will obtain data for 2010 emissions from facilities based on use of higher tier methods and in particular assess how this data could be used to improve the overall method for calculating emissions from U.S. nitric acid production. Specifically, the planned improvements include assessing data to update the N₂O emission factors, abatement utilization and destruction factors, and the current share of nitric acid production attributable to various abatement technologies.

Recalculations Discussion

Historical estimates for N₂O emissions from nitric acid production have been revised relative to the previous Inventory based on updated information from EPA (2010) on abatement technologies in use and based on revised production data published by the U.S. Census Bureau (2010). The previous Inventory assumed that approximately 17 percent of facilities accounting for less than 8 percent of national production were equipped with NSCR systems (EPA 2010b). The current Inventory assumes that approximately 25 percent of facilities, accounting for roughly 15 percent of national production, were equipped with NSCR systems (EPA 2010a). This change resulted in a decrease in the weighted average emission factor of 0.6 kg N₂O/metric ton HNO₃ (6.3 percent). Additionally, national nitric acid production values for 1991, 1993-1995, 1997-1999, 2002, and 2008 have been updated relative to the previous Inventory (US Census Bureau 2009, 2010). Revised production in 2008 contributed to an overall decrease in emissions of 2.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. (13.6 percent) in that year; revised production in the other historical years had a negligible impact on emissions. Overall, changes relative to the previous Inventory resulted in an average annual decrease in emissions of 1.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (6.7 percent) for the period 1990 through 2008.

4.7. Adipic Acid Production (IPCC Source Category 2B3)

Adipic acid production is an anthropogenic source of N₂O emissions. Worldwide, few adipic acid plants exist. The United States and Europe are the major producers. In 2009, the United States had two companies with a total of three adipic acid processes, two of which were operational (CW 2007; Desai 2010; VA DEQ 2009). The United States accounts for the largest share of global adipic acid production capacity (30 percent), followed by the European Union (29 percent) and China (22 percent) (SEI 2010). Adipic acid is a white crystalline solid used in the manufacture of synthetic fibers, plastics, coatings, urethane foams, elastomers, and synthetic lubricants. Commercially, it is the most important of the aliphatic dicarboxylic acids, which are used to manufacture polyesters.

84 percent of all adipic acid produced in the United States is used in the production of nylon 6,6; nine percent is used in the production of polyester polyols; four percent is used in the production of plasticizers; and the remaining four percent is accounted for by other uses, including unsaturated polyester resins and food applications (ICIS 2007). Food grade adipic acid is used to provide some foods with a “tangy” flavor (Thiemens and Trogler 1991).

Adipic acid is produced through a two-stage process during which N₂O is generated in the second stage. The first stage of manufacturing usually involves the oxidation of cyclohexane to form a cyclohexanone/cyclohexanol mixture. The second stage involves oxidizing this mixture with nitric acid to produce adipic acid. N₂O is generated as a by-product of the nitric acid oxidation stage and is emitted in the waste gas stream (Thiemens and Trogler 1991). Process emissions from the production of adipic acid vary with the types of technologies and level of emission controls employed by a facility. In 1990, two of the three major adipic acid-producing plants had N₂O abatement technologies in place and, as of 1998, the three major adipic acid production facilities had control systems in place (Reimer et al. 1999). One small plant, which last operated in April 2006 and represented approximately two percent of production, did not control for N₂O (VA DEQ 2009; ICIS 2007; VA DEQ 2006).

N₂O emissions from adipic acid production were estimated to be 1.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (6 Gg) in 2009 (see Table 4-26). National adipic acid production has increased by approximately 11 percent over the period of 1990 through 2009, to roughly 820,000 metric tons. Over the same period, emissions have been reduced by 88 percent due to both the widespread installation of pollution control measures in the late 1990s and plant idling in the late 2000s. In April 2006, the smallest of the four facilities ceased production of adipic acid (VA DEQ 2009); furthermore, one of the major adipic acid production facilities was not operational in 2009 (Desai 2010).

Table 4-26: N₂O Emissions from Adipic Acid Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	15.8	51
2000	5.5	18
2005	5.0	16
2006	4.3	14
2007	3.7	12
2008	2.0	7
2009	1.9	6

Methodology

Due to confidential business information, plant names are not provided in this section. The four adipic acid-producing plants will henceforth be referred to as Plants 1 through 4.

For Plants 1 and 2, 1990 to 2009 emission estimates were obtained directly from the plant engineer and account for reductions due to control systems in place at these plants during the time series (Desai 2010). These estimates were based on continuous emissions monitoring equipment installed at the two facilities. In 2009, no Adipic acid production occurred at Plant 1. For Plants 3 and 4, N₂O emissions were calculated by multiplying adipic acid production by an emission factor (i.e., N₂O emitted per unit of adipic acid produced) and adjusting for the percentage of N₂O released as a result of plant-specific emission controls. On the basis of experiments, the overall reaction stoichiometry for N₂O production in the preparation of adipic acid was estimated at approximately 0.3 metric tons of N₂O per metric ton of product (IPCC 2006). Emissions are estimated using the following equation:

$$\text{N}_2\text{O emissions} = (\text{production of adipic acid [metric tons \{MT\} of adipic acid]}) \times (0.3 \text{ MT N}_2\text{O} / \text{MT adipic acid}) \times (1 - [\text{N}_2\text{O destruction factor} \times \text{abatement system utility factor}])$$

The “N₂O destruction factor” represents the percentage of N₂O emissions that are destroyed by the installed abatement technology. The “abatement system utility factor” represents the percentage of time that the abatement equipment operates during the annual production period. Overall, in the United States, two of the plants employ catalytic destruction (Plants 1 and 2), one plant employs thermal destruction (Plant 3), and the smallest plant used no N₂O abatement equipment (Plant 4). For Plant 3, which uses thermal destruction and for which no reported plant-specific emissions are available, the N₂O abatement system destruction factor is assumed to be 98.5 percent, and the abatement system utility factor is assumed to be 97 percent (IPCC 2006).

From 1990 to 2003, plant-specific production data were estimated for Plant 3 where direct emission measurements were not available. In order to calculate plant-specific production for this plant, national adipic acid production was allocated to the plant level using the ratio of known plant capacity to total national capacity for all U.S. plants. The estimated plant production for this plant was then used for calculating emissions as described above. For 2004 and 2006, actual plant production data were obtained and used for emission calculations (CW 2007; CW 2005). For 2005, interpolated national production was used for calculating emissions. Updated production data were not available for Plant 3 for 2007 through 2009; therefore, production values for 2007 through 2009 were proxied using 2006 data.

For Plant 4, which last operated in April 2006 (VA DEQ 2009), plant-specific production data were obtained across the time series from 1990 through 2008 (VA DEQ 2010). Since the plant has not operated since 2006, production in 2009 is assumed to be equal to the 2008 estimate, which was zero. The plant-specific production data were then used for calculating emissions as described above.

National adipic acid production data (see Table 4-27) from 1990 through 2009 were obtained from the American Chemistry Council (ACC 2010).

Plant capacities for 1990 through 1994 were obtained from Chemical and Engineering News, “Facts and Figures” and “Production of Top 50 Chemicals” (C&EN 1992 through 1995). Plant capacities for 1995 and 1996 were kept the same as 1994 data. The 1997 plant capacities were taken from Chemical Market Reporter “Chemical Profile: Adipic Acid” (CMR 1998). The 1998 plant capacities for all four plants and 1999 plant capacities for three of the plants were obtained from Chemical Week, Product Focus: Adipic Acid/Adiponitrile (CW 1999). Plant capacities for 2000 for three of the plants were updated using Chemical Market Reporter, “Chemical Profile: Adipic Acid” (CMR 2001). For 2001 through 2005, the plant capacities for three plants were kept the same as the year 2000 capacities. Plant capacity for 1999 to 2005 for the one remaining plant was kept the same as 1998. For 2004 to 2009, although some plant capacity data are available (CW 1999, CMR 2001, ICIS 2007), they are not used to calculate plant-specific production for these years because plant-specific production data for 2004 and 2006 are also available and are used in our calculations instead (CW 2005, CW 2007).

Table 4-27: Adipic Acid Production (Gg)

Year	Gg
1990	735
2000	925
2005	903
2006	964
2007	930
2008	869
2009	819

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The overall uncertainty associated with the 2009 N₂O emission estimate from adipic acid production was calculated using the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006) Tier 2 methodology. Uncertainty associated with the parameters used to estimate N₂O emissions included that of company specific production data, emission factors for abated and unabated emissions, and company-specific historical emission estimates.

The results of this Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-28. N₂O emissions from adipic acid production were estimated to be between 1.2 and 2.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 40 percent below to 42 percent above the 2009 emission estimate of 1.9 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-28: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for N₂O Emissions from Adipic Acid Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	(%)
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			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Adipic Acid Production	N ₂ O	1.9	1.2	2.8	-40%	+42%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Recalculations

The current Inventory uses national production data from the ACC (2010) across the full time series. Previous Inventories relied upon a variety of sources and linear interpolation for missing intervening years in the national production time series. This change resulted in an average annual decrease in the national production estimate of approximately 2 percent for the period 1990 through 2008 relative to the previous Inventory. Emissions decreased by less than 0.1 percent over the same time period relative to the previous Inventory.

Planned Improvements

Future improvements to the adipic acid production category involve evaluating facility level greenhouse gas emissions data as a basis for improving emissions calculations from adipic acid production. Beginning in 2010, all U.S. adipic acid production facilities are required to monitor, calculate and report their greenhouse gas emissions to EPA through its Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program. Under the program, EPA will obtain data for 2010 emissions from facilities based on use of higher tier methods and in particular assess how this data could be used to improve

CO ₂	375		248		219	207	196	175	145
CH ₄	1		1		+	+	+	+	+

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg.

Methodology

Emissions of CO₂ and CH₄ from the production of SiC were calculated by multiplying annual SiC production by the emission factors (2.62 metric tons CO₂/metric ton SiC for CO₂ and 11.6 kg CH₄/metric ton SiC for CH₄) provided by the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006).

Emissions of CO₂ from silicon carbide consumption were calculated by multiplying the annual SiC consumption (production plus net imports) by the percent used in metallurgical and other non-abrasive uses (50 percent) (USGS 2009). The total SiC consumed in metallurgical and other non-abrasive uses was multiplied by the C content of SiC (31.5 percent), which was determined according to the molecular weight ratio of SiC.

Production data for 1990 through 2008 were obtained from the Minerals Yearbook: Manufactured Abrasives (USGS 1991a through 2005a, 2007, and 2009). Production data for 2009 was taken from the Minerals Commodity Summary: Abrasives (Manufactured) (USGS 2010). Silicon carbide consumption by major end use was obtained from the Minerals Yearbook: Silicon (USGS 1991b through 2005b) (see Table 4-31) for years 1990 through 2004 and from the USGS Minerals Commodity Specialist for 2005 and 2006 (Corathers 2006, 2007). Silicon carbide consumption by major end use data for 2009 is proxied using 2008 data due to unavailability of data at time of publication. Net imports for the entire time series were obtained from the U.S. Census Bureau (2005 through 2010).

Table 4-31: Production and Consumption of Silicon Carbide (Metric Tons)

Year	Production	Consumption
1990	105,000	172,465
2000	45,000	225,070
2005	35,000	220,149
2006	35,000	199,937
2007	35,000	179,741
2008	35,000	144,928
2009	35,000	92,280

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

There is uncertainty associated with the emission factors used because they are based on stoichiometry as opposed to monitoring of actual SiC production plants. An alternative would be to calculate emissions based on the quantity of petroleum coke used during the production process rather than on the amount of silicon carbide produced. However, these data were not available. For CH₄, there is also uncertainty associated with the hydrogen-containing volatile compounds in the petroleum coke (IPCC 2006). There is also some uncertainty associated with production, net imports, and consumption data as well as the percent of total consumption that is attributed to metallurgical and other non-abrasive uses.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-32. Silicon carbide production and consumption CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 9 percent below and 9 percent above the emission estimate of 0.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. Silicon carbide production CH₄ emissions were estimated to be between 9 percent below and 9 percent above the emission estimate of 0.01 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level.

Table 4-32: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ and CO₂ Emissions from Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Silicon Carbide Production	CO ₂	0.2	0.13	0.16	-9%	+9%

and Consumption						
Silicon Carbide Production	CH ₄	+	+	+	-9%	+9%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.
+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq. or 0.5 Gg.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

Future improvements to the silicon carbide production source category include evaluating facility level greenhouse gas emissions data as a basis for improving emissions calculations from silicon carbide production. Beginning in 2010, all U.S. silicon carbide production facilities are required to monitor, calculate and report their greenhouse gas emissions to EPA through its Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program. Under the program, EPA will obtain data for 2010 emissions from facilities based on use of higher tier methods and in particular assess how this data could be used to improve the overall method for calculating emissions from the U.S. silicon carbide production industry. In addition, improvements will involve continued research to determine if calcium carbide production and consumption data are available for the United States. If these data are available, calcium carbide emission estimates will be included in this source category. Additionally, as future improvement to the silicon carbide uncertainty analysis, USGS Mineral Commodity Specialists will be contacted to verify the uncertainty range associated with silicon carbide emissive utilization.

4.9. Petrochemical Production (IPCC Source Category 2B5)

The production of some petrochemicals results in the release of small amounts of CH₄ and CO₂ emissions. Petrochemicals are chemicals isolated or derived from petroleum or natural gas. CH₄ emissions are presented here from the production of carbon black, ethylene, ethylene dichloride, and methanol, while CO₂ emissions are presented here for only carbon black production. The CO₂ emissions from petrochemical processes other than carbon black are currently included in the Carbon Stored in Products from Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels Section of the Energy chapter. The CO₂ from carbon black production is included here to allow for the direct reporting of CO₂ emissions from the process and direct accounting of the feedstocks used in the process.

Carbon black is an intense black powder generated by the incomplete combustion of an aromatic petroleum or coal-based feedstock. Most carbon black produced in the United States is added to rubber to impart strength and abrasion resistance, and the tire industry is by far the largest consumer. Ethylene is consumed in the production processes of the plastics industry including polymers such as high, low, and linear low density polyethylene (HDPE, LDPE, LLDPE), polyvinyl chloride (PVC), ethylene dichloride, ethylene oxide, and ethylbenzene. Ethylene dichloride is one of the first manufactured chlorinated hydrocarbons with reported production as early as 1795. In addition to being an important intermediate in the synthesis of chlorinated hydrocarbons, ethylene dichloride is used as an industrial solvent and as a fuel additive. Methanol is an alternative transportation fuel as well as a principle ingredient in windshield wiper fluid, paints, solvents, refrigerants, and disinfectants. In addition, methanol-based acetic acid is used in making PET plastics and polyester fibers.

Emissions of CO₂ and CH₄ from petrochemical production in 2009 were 2.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (2,735 Gg) and 0.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (40 Gg), respectively (see Table 4-33 and Table 4-34), totaling 3.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. There has been an overall decrease in CO₂ emissions from carbon black production of 17 percent since 1990. CH₄ emissions from petrochemical production decreased by approximately two percent since 1990.

Table 4-33: CO₂ and CH₄ Emissions from Petrochemical Production (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Year	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO ₂	3.3	4.5	4.2	3.8	3.9	3.4	2.7
CH ₄	0.9	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8
Total	4.2	5.7	5.3	4.8	4.9	4.4	3.6

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 4-34: CO₂ and CH₄ Emissions from Petrochemical Production (Gg)

Year	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------

CO ₂	3,311	4,479	4,181	3,837	3,931	3,449	2,735
CH ₄	41	59	51	48	48	43	40

Methodology

Emissions of CH₄ were calculated by multiplying annual estimates of chemical production by the appropriate emission factor, as follows: 11 kg CH₄/metric ton carbon black, 1 kg CH₄/metric ton ethylene, 0.4 kg CH₄/metric ton ethylene dichloride,¹¹³ and 2 kg CH₄/metric ton methanol. Although the production of other chemicals may also result in CH₄ emissions, insufficient data were available to estimate their emissions.

Emission factors were taken from the Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Annual production data (see Table 4-35) were obtained from the American Chemistry Council's Guide to the Business of Chemistry (ACC 2002, 2003, 2005 through 2010) and the International Carbon Black Association (Johnson 2003, 2005 through 2010). Note that 2009 production data for Methanol was not available at time of publication, as such, 2008 methanol production is used as a proxy for 2009.

Table 4-35: Production of Selected Petrochemicals (Thousand Metric Tons)

Chemical	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Carbon Black	1,307	1,769	1,651	1,515	1,552	1,362	1,080
Ethylene	16,541	24,970	23,954	25,000	25,392	22,539	22,596
Ethylene Dichloride	6,282	9,866	11,260	9,736	9,566	8,981	8,131
Methanol	3,785	5,221	2,336	1,123	1,068	1,136	1,136

Almost all carbon black in the United States is produced from petroleum-based or coal-based feedstocks using the “furnace black” process (European IPPC Bureau 2004). The furnace black process is a partial combustion process in which a portion of the carbon black feedstock is combusted to provide energy to the process. Carbon black is also produced in the United States by the thermal cracking of acetylene-containing feedstocks (“acetylene black process”) and by the thermal cracking of other hydrocarbons (“thermal black process”). One U.S. carbon black plant produces carbon black using the thermal black process, and one U.S. carbon black plant produces carbon black using the acetylene black process (The Innovation Group 2004).

The furnace black process produces carbon black from “carbon black feedstock” (also referred to as “carbon black oil”), which is a heavy aromatic oil that may be derived as a byproduct of either the petroleum refining process or the metallurgical (coal) coke production process. For the production of both petroleum-derived and coal-derived carbon black, the “primary feedstock” (i.e., carbon black feedstock) is injected into a furnace that is heated by a “secondary feedstock” (generally natural gas). Both the natural gas secondary feedstock and a portion of the carbon black feedstock are oxidized to provide heat to the production process and pyrolyze the remaining Carbon black feedstock to carbon black. The “tail gas” from the furnace black process contains CO₂, carbon monoxide, sulfur compounds, CH₄, and non-CH₄ volatile organic compounds. A portion of the tail gas is generally burned for energy recovery to heat the downstream carbon black product dryers. The remaining tail gas may also be burned for energy recovery, flared, or vented uncontrolled to the atmosphere.

The calculation of the C lost during the production process is the basis for determining the amount of CO₂ released during the process. The C content of national carbon black production is subtracted from the total amount of C contained in primary and secondary carbon black feedstock to find the amount of C lost during the production process. It is assumed that the C lost in this process is emitted to the atmosphere as either CH₄ or CO₂. The C content of the CH₄ emissions, estimated as described above, is subtracted from the total C lost in the process to calculate the amount of C emitted as CO₂. The total amount of primary and secondary carbon black feedstock consumed in the process (see Table 4-36) is estimated using a primary feedstock consumption factor and a secondary feedstock consumption factor estimated from U.S. Census Bureau (1999, 2004, and 2007) data. The average carbon black feedstock consumption factor for U.S. carbon black production is 1.69 metric tons of carbon black feedstock consumed per metric ton of carbon black produced. The average natural gas consumption factor for

¹¹³ The emission factor obtained from IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997), page 2.23 is assumed to have a misprint; the chemical identified should be ethylene dichloride (C₂H₄Cl₂) rather than dichloroethylene (C₂H₂Cl₂).

U.S. carbon black production is 321 normal cubic meters of natural gas consumed per metric ton of carbon black produced. The amount of C contained in the primary and secondary feedstocks is calculated by applying the respective C contents of the feedstocks to the respective levels of feedstock consumption (EIA 2003, 2004).

Table 4-36: Carbon Black Feedstock (Primary Feedstock) and Natural Gas Feedstock (Secondary Feedstock) Consumption (Thousand Metric Tons)

Activity	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Primary Feedstock	2,213	2,993	2,794	2,564	2,627	2,305	1,828
Secondary Feedstock	284	384	359	329	337	296	235

For the purposes of emissions estimation, 100 percent of the primary carbon black feedstock is assumed to be derived from petroleum refining byproducts. Carbon black feedstock derived from metallurgical (coal) coke production (e.g., creosote oil) is also used for carbon black production; however, no data are available concerning the annual consumption of coal-derived carbon black feedstock. Carbon black feedstock derived from petroleum refining byproducts is assumed to be 89 percent elemental C (Srivastava et al. 1999). It is assumed that 100 percent of the tail gas produced from the carbon black production process is combusted and that none of the tail gas is vented to the atmosphere uncontrolled. The furnace black process is assumed to be the only process used for the production of carbon black because of the lack of data concerning the relatively small amount of carbon black produced using the acetylene black and thermal black processes. The carbon black produced from the furnace black process is assumed to be 97 percent elemental C (Othmer et al. 1992).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The CH₄ emission factors used for petrochemical production are based on a limited number of studies. Using plant-specific factors instead of average factors could increase the accuracy of the emission estimates; however, such data were not available. There may also be other significant sources of CH₄ arising from petrochemical production activities that have not been included in these estimates.

The results of the quantitative uncertainty analysis for the CO₂ emissions from carbon black production calculation are based on feedstock consumption, import and export data, and carbon black production data. The composition of carbon black feedstock varies depending upon the specific refinery production process, and therefore the assumption that carbon black feedstock is 89 percent C gives rise to uncertainty. Also, no data are available concerning the consumption of coal-derived carbon black feedstock, so CO₂ emissions from the utilization of coal-based feedstock are not included in the emission estimate. In addition, other data sources indicate that the amount of petroleum-based feedstock used in carbon black production may be underreported by the U.S. Census Bureau. Finally, the amount of carbon black produced from the thermal black process and acetylene black process, although estimated to be a small percentage of the total production, is not known. Therefore, there is some uncertainty associated with the assumption that all of the carbon black is produced using the furnace black process.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-37. Petrochemical production CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 2.0 and 3.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 27 percent below to 31 percent above the emission estimate of 2.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. Petrochemical production CH₄ emissions were estimated to be between 0.6 and 1.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 26 percent below to 27 percent above the emission estimate of 0.8 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-37: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ Emissions from Petrochemical Production and CO₂ Emissions from Carbon Black Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission			
		Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a		
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
Petrochemical Production	CO ₂	2.7	2.0	3.6	-27% +31%
Petrochemical Production	CH ₄	0.8	0.6	1.1	-26% +27%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990

through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

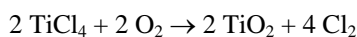
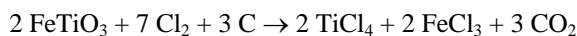
Planned Improvements

Future improvements to the petrochemicals source category involve updating the methodology to use CH₄ emission factors for petrochemical production from the IPCC 2006 guidelines rather than the IPCC 1996 guidelines. Further future improvements involve evaluating facility level greenhouse gas emissions data as a basis for improving emissions calculations from petrochemical production. Beginning in 2010, all U.S. petrochemical production facilities are required to monitor, calculate and report their greenhouse gas emissions to EPA through its Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program. Under the program, EPA will obtain data for 2010 emissions from facilities based on use of higher tier methods and in particular assess how this data could be used to improve the overall method for calculating emissions from the U.S. petrochemical production industry, for example using a Tier 2 methodology to calculate emissions from the production of methanol, ethylene, propylene, ethylene dichloride, and ethylene oxide. In addition, the planned improvements include assessing the data EPA obtains to update data sources for acrylonitrile production in the United States.

4.10. Titanium Dioxide Production (IPCC Source Category 2B5)

Titanium dioxide (TiO₂) is a metal oxide manufactured from titanium ore, and is principally used as a pigment. Titanium dioxide is a principal ingredient in white paint, and is also used as a pigment in the manufacture of white paper, foods, and other products. There are two processes for making TiO₂: the chloride process and the sulfate process. The chloride process uses petroleum coke and chlorine as raw materials and emits process-related CO₂. The sulfate process does not use petroleum coke or other forms of C as a raw material and does not emit CO₂.

The chloride process is based on the following chemical reactions:



The C in the first chemical reaction is provided by petroleum coke, which is oxidized in the presence of the chlorine and FeTiO₃ (the Ti-containing ore) to form CO₂. The majority of U.S. TiO₂ was produced in the United States through the chloride process, and a special grade of “calcined” petroleum coke is manufactured specifically for this purpose.

Emissions of CO₂ in 2009 were 1.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1,541 Gg), which represents an increase of 29 percent since 1990 (see Table 4-38).

Table 4-38: CO₂ Emissions from Titanium Dioxide (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	1.2	1,195
2000	1.8	1,752
2005	1.8	1,755
2006	1.8	1,836
2007	1.9	1,930
2008	1.8	1,809
2009	1.5	1,541

Methodology

Emissions of CO₂ from TiO₂ production were calculated by multiplying annual TiO₂ production by chloride-process-specific emission factors.

Data were obtained for the total amount of TiO₂ produced each year. For years previous to 2004, it was assumed that TiO₂ was produced using the chloride process and the sulfate process in the same ratio as the ratio of the total U.S. production capacity for each process. As of 2004, the last remaining sulfate-process plant in the United States

had closed; therefore, 100 percent of post-2004 production uses the chloride process (USGS 2005). An emission factor of 0.4 metric tons C/metric ton TiO₂ was applied to the estimated chloride-process production. It was assumed that all TiO₂ produced using the chloride process was produced using petroleum coke, although some TiO₂ may have been produced with graphite or other C inputs. The amount of petroleum coke consumed annually in TiO₂ production was calculated based on the assumption that the calcined petroleum coke used in the process is 98.4 percent C and 1.6 percent inert materials (Nelson 1969).

The emission factor for the TiO₂ chloride process was taken from the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006). Titanium dioxide production data and the percentage of total TiO₂ production capacity that is chloride process for 1990 through 2008 (see Table 4-39) were obtained through the Minerals Yearbook: Titanium Annual Report (USGS 1991 through 2008). Production data in 2009 was obtained from the Minerals Commodity Summary: Titanium and Titanium Dioxide (USGS 2010). Due to lack of available 2009 capacity data at the time of publication, the 2008 capacity estimate is used as a proxy for 2009. Percentage chloride-process data were not available for 1990 through 1993, and data from the 1994 USGS Minerals Yearbook were used for these years. Because a sulfate-process plant closed in September 2001, the chloride-process percentage for 2001 was estimated based on a discussion with Joseph Gambogi (2002). By 2002, only one sulfate plant remained online in the United States and this plant closed in 2004 (USGS 2005).

Table 4-39: Titanium Dioxide Production (Gg)

Year	Gg
1990	979
2000	1,400
2005	1,310
2006	1,370
2007	1,440
2008	1,350
2009	1,150

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Although some TiO₂ may be produced using graphite or other C inputs, information and data regarding these practices were not available. Titanium dioxide produced using graphite inputs, for example, may generate differing amounts of CO₂ per unit of TiO₂ produced as compared to that generated through the use of petroleum coke in production. While the most accurate method to estimate emissions would be to base calculations on the amount of reducing agent used in each process rather than on the amount of TiO₂ produced, sufficient data were not available to do so.

Also, annual TiO₂ is not reported by USGS by the type of production process used (chloride or sulfate). Only the percentage of total production capacity by process is reported. The percent of total TiO₂ production capacity that was attributed to the chloride process was multiplied by total TiO₂ production to estimate the amount of TiO₂ produced using the chloride process (since, as of 2004, the last remaining sulfate-process plant in the United States closed). This assumes that the chloride-process plants and sulfate-process plants operate at the same level of utilization. Finally, the emission factor was applied uniformly to all chloride-process production, and no data were available to account for differences in production efficiency among chloride-process plants. In calculating the amount of petroleum coke consumed in chloride-process TiO₂ production, literature data were used for petroleum coke composition. Certain grades of petroleum coke are manufactured specifically for use in the TiO₂ chloride process; however, this composition information was not available.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-40. Titanium dioxide consumption CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 1.4 and 1.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 13 percent below and 13 percent above the emission estimate of 1.5 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-40: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Titanium Dioxide Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
		Estimate	Range		Relative to Emission Estimate ^a	
		(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Titanium Dioxide Production	CO ₂	1.5	1.3	1.7	-13%	+13%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

Future improvements to the titanium dioxide production category involve evaluating facility level greenhouse gas emissions data as a basis for improving emissions calculations from titanium dioxide production. Beginning in 2010, all U.S. titanium dioxide production facilities using the chloride production process are required to monitor, calculate and report their greenhouse gas emissions to EPA through its Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program. Under the program, EPA will obtain data for 2010 emissions from facilities based on use of higher tier methods and in particular assess how this data could be used to improve the overall method for calculating emissions from the U.S. titanium dioxide production industry, including improving the emission factors. In addition, the planned improvements include researching the significance of titanium-slag production in electric furnaces and synthetic-rutile production using the Becher process in the United States. Significant use of these production processes will be included in future estimates.

4.11. Carbon Dioxide Consumption (IPCC Source Category 2B5)

CO₂ is used for a variety of commercial applications, including food processing, chemical production, carbonated beverage production, and refrigeration, and is also used in petroleum production for enhanced oil recovery (EOR). CO₂ used for EOR is injected into the underground reservoirs to increase the reservoir pressure to enable additional petroleum to be produced.

For the most part, CO₂ used in non-EOR applications will eventually be released to the atmosphere, and for the purposes of this analysis CO₂ used in commercial applications other than EOR is assumed to be emitted to the atmosphere. CO₂ used in EOR applications is discussed in the Energy Chapter under “Carbon Capture and Storage, including Enhanced Oil Recovery” and is not discussed in this section.

CO₂ is produced from naturally occurring CO₂ reservoirs, as a by-product from the energy and industrial production processes (e.g., ammonia production, fossil fuel combustion, ethanol production), and as a by-product from the production of crude oil and natural gas, which contain naturally occurring CO₂ as a component. Only CO₂ produced from naturally occurring CO₂ reservoirs and used in industrial applications other than EOR is included in this analysis. Neither by-product CO₂ generated from energy nor industrial production processes nor CO₂ separated from crude oil and natural gas are included in this analysis for a number of reasons. CO₂ captured from biogenic sources (e.g., ethanol production plants) is not included in the inventory. CO₂ captured from crude oil and gas production is used in EOR applications and is therefore reported in the Energy Chapter. Any CO₂ captured from industrial or energy production processes (e.g., ammonia plants, fossil fuel combustion) and used in non-EOR applications is assumed to be emitted to the atmosphere. The CO₂ emissions from such capture and use are

therefore accounted for under Ammonia Production, Fossil Fuel Combustion, or other appropriate source category.¹¹⁴

CO₂ is produced as a by-product of crude oil and natural gas production. This CO₂ is separated from the crude oil and natural gas using gas processing equipment, and may be emitted directly to the atmosphere, or captured and reinjected into underground formations, used for EOR, or sold for other commercial uses. A further discussion of CO₂ used in EOR is described in the Energy Chapter under the text box titled “Carbon Dioxide Transport, Injection, and Geological Storage.” The only CO₂ consumption that is accounted for in this analysis is CO₂ produced from naturally-occurring CO₂ reservoirs that is used in commercial applications other than EOR.

There are currently two facilities, one in Mississippi and one in New Mexico, producing CO₂ from naturally occurring CO₂ reservoirs for use in both EOR and in other commercial applications (e.g., chemical manufacturing, food production). There are other naturally occurring CO₂ reservoirs, mostly located in the western United States. Facilities are producing CO₂ from these natural reservoirs, but they are only producing CO₂ for EOR applications, not for other commercial applications (Allis et al. 2000). CO₂ production from these facilities is discussed in the Energy Chapter.

In 2009, the amount of CO₂ produced by the Mississippi and New Mexico facilities for commercial applications and subsequently emitted to the atmosphere was 1.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1,763 Gg) (see Table 4-41). This amount represents a decrease of one percent from the previous year and an increase of 24 percent since 1990. This increase was due to an increase in production at the Mississippi facility, despite the decrease in the percent of the facility’s total reported production that was used for commercial applications.

Table 4-41: CO₂ Emissions from CO₂ Consumption (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	1.4	1,416
2000	1.4	1,421
2005	1.3	1,321
2006	1.7	1,709
2007	1.9	1,867
2008	1.8	1,780
2009	1.8	1,763

Methodology

CO₂ emission estimates for 1990 through 2009 were based on production data for the two facilities currently producing CO₂ from naturally-occurring CO₂ reservoirs for use in non-EOR applications. Some of the CO₂ produced by these facilities is used for EOR and some is used in other commercial applications (e.g., chemical manufacturing, food production). It is assumed that 100 percent of the CO₂ production used in commercial applications other than EOR is eventually released into the atmosphere.

CO₂ production data for the Jackson Dome, Mississippi facility and the percentage of total production that was used for EOR and in non-EOR applications were obtained from the Advanced Resources Institute (ARI 2006, 2007) for 1990 to 2000 and from the Annual Reports for Denbury Resources (Denbury Resources 2002 through 2010) for 2001 to 2009 (see Table 4-42). Denbury Resources reported the average CO₂ production in units of MMCF CO₂ per day for 2001 through 2009 and reported the percentage of the total average annual production that was used for EOR. CO₂ production data for the Bravo Dome, New Mexico facility were obtained from the Advanced Resources International, Inc. (ARI 1990 through 2010). The percentage of total production that was used for EOR and in non-EOR applications were obtained from the New Mexico Bureau of Geology and Mineral Resources (Broadhead 2003 and New Mexico Bureau of Geology and Mineral Resources 2006).

Table 4-42: CO₂ Production (Gg CO₂) and the Percent Used for Non-EOR Applications for Jackson Dome and

¹¹⁴ There are currently four known electric power plants operating in the U.S. that capture CO₂ for use as food-grade CO₂ or other industrial processes; however, insufficient data prevents estimating emissions from these activities as part of Carbon Dioxide Consumption.

Bravo Dome

Year	Jackson Dome CO ₂ Production (Gg)	Jackson Dome % Used for Non-EOR	Bravo Dome CO ₂ Production (Gg)	Bravo Dome % Used for Non-EOR
1990	1,353	100%	6,301	1%
2000	1,353	100%	6,834	1%
2005	4,678	27%	5,799	1%
2006	6,610	25%	5,613	1%
2007	9,529	19%	5,605	1%
2008	12,312	14%	5,605	1%
2009	13,201	13%	4,639	1%

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainty is associated with the number of facilities that are currently producing CO₂ from naturally occurring CO₂ reservoirs for commercial uses other than EOR, and for which the CO₂ emissions are not accounted for elsewhere. Research indicates that there are only two such facilities, which are in New Mexico and Mississippi; however, additional facilities may exist that have not been identified. In addition, it is possible that CO₂ recovery exists in particular production and end-use sectors that are not accounted for elsewhere. Such recovery may or may not affect the overall estimate of CO₂ emissions from that sector depending upon the end use to which the recovered CO₂ is applied. Further research is required to determine whether CO₂ is being recovered from other facilities for application to end uses that are not accounted for elsewhere.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-43. CO₂ consumption CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 1.3 and 2.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 26 percent below to 30 percent above the emission estimate of 1.8 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-43: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from CO₂ Consumption (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a (%)			
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CO ₂ Consumption	CO ₂	1.8	1.3	2.3	-26%	+30%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

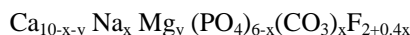
Future improvements to the Carbon Dioxide Consumption source category involve evaluating facility level greenhouse gas emissions data as a basis for improving emissions calculations from carbon dioxide consumption. Beginning in 2010, all U.S. CO₂ producers are required to monitor, calculate and report the quantity of CO₂ supplied to EPA through its Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program. Under the program, EPA will obtain data for 2010 on CO₂ supplied from facilities based on use of higher tier methods and in particular assess how this data could be used to improve the overall method for calculating emissions from consumption of CO₂.

4.12. Phosphoric Acid Production (IPCC Source Category 2B5)

Phosphoric acid (H₃PO₄) is a basic raw material in the production of phosphate-based fertilizers. Phosphate rock is mined in Florida, North Carolina, Idaho, Utah, and other areas of the United States and is used primarily as a raw material for phosphoric acid production. The production of phosphoric acid from phosphate rock produces byproduct gypsum (CaSO₄·2H₂O), referred to as phosphogypsum.

The composition of natural phosphate rock varies depending upon the location where it is mined. Natural phosphate

rock mined in the United States generally contains inorganic C in the form of calcium carbonate (limestone) and also may contain organic C. The chemical composition of phosphate rock (francolite) mined in Florida is:

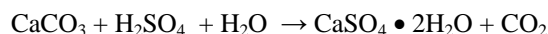


The calcium carbonate component of the phosphate rock is integral to the phosphate rock chemistry. Phosphate rock can also contain organic C that is physically incorporated into the mined rock but is not an integral component of the phosphate rock chemistry. Phosphoric acid production from natural phosphate rock is a source of CO₂ emissions, due to the chemical reaction of the inorganic C (calcium carbonate) component of the phosphate rock.

The phosphoric acid production process involves chemical reaction of the calcium phosphate (Ca₃(PO₄)₂) component of the phosphate rock with sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄) and recirculated phosphoric acid (H₃PO₄) (EFMA 2000). The primary chemical reactions for the production of phosphoric acid from phosphate rock are:



The limestone (CaCO₃) component of the phosphate rock reacts with the sulfuric acid in the phosphoric acid production process to produce calcium sulfate (phosphogypsum) and CO₂. The chemical reaction for the limestone-sulfuric acid reaction is:



Total marketable phosphate rock production in 2009 was 27.2 million metric tons (USGS 2010). Approximately 87 percent of domestic phosphate rock production was mined in Florida and North Carolina, while approximately 13 percent of production was mined in Idaho and Utah. Total imports of phosphate rock in 2009 were 1.8 million metric tons (USGS 2010). The vast majority, 99 percent, of imported phosphate rock is sourced from Morocco (USGS 2005). Marketable phosphate rock production, including domestic production and imports for consumption, decreased by 13.6 percent between 2008 and 2009. Over the 1990 to 2009 period, production has decreased by 34 percent. Total CO₂ emissions from phosphoric acid production were 1.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1,035 Gg) in 2009 (see Table 4-44). According to USGS 2010, the weak market conditions of phosphate rock in the U.S. in 2009 were a result of the global economic crisis that started in late 2008 and carried into 2009.

Table 4-44: CO₂ Emissions from Phosphoric Acid Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO2 Eq.	Gg
1990	1.5	1,529
2000	1.4	1,382
2005	1.4	1,386
2006	1.2	1,167
2007	1.2	1,166
2008	1.2	1,187
2009	1.0	1,035

Methodology

CO₂ emissions from production of phosphoric acid from phosphate rock are calculated by multiplying the average amount of calcium carbonate contained in the natural phosphate rock by the amount of phosphate rock that is used annually to produce phosphoric acid, accounting for domestic production and net imports for consumption.

The CO₂ emissions calculation methodology is based on the assumption that all of the inorganic C (calcium carbonate) content of the phosphate rock reacts to CO₂ in the phosphoric acid production process and is emitted with the stack gas. The methodology also assumes that none of the organic C content of the phosphate rock is converted to CO₂ and that all of the organic C content remains in the phosphoric acid product.

From 1993 to 2004, the *USGS Mineral Yearbook: Phosphate Rock* disaggregated phosphate rock mined annually in Florida and North Carolina from phosphate rock mined annually in Idaho and Utah, and reported the annual amounts of phosphate rock exported and imported for consumption (see Table 4-45). For the years 1990, 1991,

1992, 2005, 2006, and 2007 only nationally aggregated mining data was reported by USGS. For these years, the breakdown of phosphate rock mined in Florida and North Carolina, and the amount mined in Idaho and Utah, are approximated using 1993 to 2004 data. Data for domestic production of phosphate rock, exports of phosphate rock (primarily from Florida and North Carolina), and imports of phosphate rock for consumption for 1990 through 2008 were obtained from *USGS Minerals Yearbook: Phosphate Rock* (USGS 1994 through 2010). 2009 data were obtained from *USGS Minerals Commodity Summary: Phosphate Rock* (USGS 2010). From 2004 through 2009, the USGS reported no exports of phosphate rock from U.S. producers (USGS 2005 through 2010).

The carbonate content of phosphate rock varies depending upon where the material is mined. Composition data for domestically mined and imported phosphate rock were provided by the Florida Institute of Phosphate Research (FIPR 2003). Phosphate rock mined in Florida contains approximately 1 percent inorganic C, and phosphate rock imported from Morocco contains approximately 1.46 percent inorganic C. Calcined phosphate rock mined in North Carolina and Idaho contains approximately 0.41 percent and 0.27 percent inorganic C, respectively (see Table 4-46).

Carbonate content data for phosphate rock mined in Florida are used to calculate the CO₂ emissions from consumption of phosphate rock mined in Florida and North Carolina (87 percent of domestic production) and carbonate content data for phosphate rock mined in Morocco are used to calculate CO₂ emissions from consumption of imported phosphate rock. The CO₂ emissions calculation is based on the assumption that all of the domestic production of phosphate rock is used in uncalcined form. As of 2006, the USGS noted that one phosphate rock producer in Idaho produces calcined phosphate rock; however, no production data were available for this single producer (USGS 2006). Carbonate content data for uncalcined phosphate rock mined in Idaho and Utah (13 percent of domestic production) were not available, and carbonate content was therefore estimated from the carbonate content data for calcined phosphate rock mined in Idaho.

Table 4-45: Phosphate Rock Domestic Production, Exports, and Imports (Gg)

Location/Year	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
U.S. Production ^a	49,800	37,370	36,100	30,100	29,700	30,200	27,200
FL & NC	42,494	31,900	31,227	26,037	25,691	26,123	23,528
ID & UT	7,306	5,470	4,874	4,064	4,010	4,077	3,672
Exports—FL & NC	6,240	299	-	-	-	-	-
Imports—Morocco	451	1,930	2,630	2,420	2,670	2,754	1,800
Total U.S.							
Consumption	44,011	39,001	38,730	32,520	32,370	32,954	29,000

^a USGS does not disaggregate production data regionally (FL & NC and ID & UT) for 1990, 2005, 2006, and 2007. Data for those years are estimated based on the remaining time series distribution.

- Assumed equal to zero.

Table 4-46: Chemical Composition of Phosphate Rock (percent by weight)

Composition	Central	North Carolina			
	Florida	North Florida	(calcined)	Idaho (calcined)	Morocco
Total Carbon (as C)	1.60	1.76	0.76	0.60	1.56
Inorganic Carbon (as C)	1.00	0.93	0.41	0.27	1.46
Organic Carbon (as C)	0.60	0.83	0.35	-	0.10
Inorganic Carbon (as CO ₂)	3.67	3.43	1.50	1.00	5.00

Source: FIPR 2003

- Assumed equal to zero.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Phosphate rock production data used in the emission calculations were developed by the USGS through monthly and semiannual voluntary surveys of the active phosphate rock mines during 2009. For previous years in the time series, USGS provided the data disaggregated regionally; however, beginning in 2006 only total U.S. phosphate rock production were reported. Regional production for 2008 was estimated based on regional production data from previous years and multiplied by regionally-specific emission factors. There is uncertainty associated with the degree to which the estimated 2008 regional production data represents actual production in those regions. Total U.S. phosphate rock production data are not considered to be a significant source of uncertainty because all the domestic phosphate rock producers report their annual production to the USGS. Data for exports of phosphate rock

used in the emission calculation are reported by phosphate rock producers and are not considered to be a significant source of uncertainty. Data for imports for consumption are based on international trade data collected by the U.S. Census Bureau. These U.S. government economic data are not considered to be a significant source of uncertainty.

An additional source of uncertainty in the calculation of CO₂ emissions from phosphoric acid production is the carbonate composition of phosphate rock; the composition of phosphate rock varies depending upon where the material is mined, and may also vary over time. Another source of uncertainty is the disposition of the organic C content of the phosphate rock. A representative of the FIPR indicated that in the phosphoric acid production process, the organic C content of the mined phosphate rock generally remains in the phosphoric acid product, which is what produces the color of the phosphoric acid product (FIPR 2003a). Organic C is therefore not included in the calculation of CO₂ emissions from phosphoric acid production.

A third source of uncertainty is the assumption that all domestically-produced phosphate rock is used in phosphoric acid production and used without first being calcined. Calcination of the phosphate rock would result in conversion of some of the organic C in the phosphate rock into CO₂. However, according to the USGS, only one producer in Idaho is currently calcining phosphate rock, and no data were available concerning the annual production of this single producer (USGS 2005). For available years, total production of phosphate rock in Utah and Idaho combined amounts to approximately 13 percent of total domestic production on average (USGS 1994 through 2005).

Finally, USGS indicated that approximately 7 percent of domestically-produced phosphate rock is used to manufacture elemental phosphorus and other phosphorus-based chemicals, rather than phosphoric acid (USGS 2006). According to USGS, there is only one domestic producer of elemental phosphorus, in Idaho, and no data were available concerning the annual production of this single producer. Elemental phosphorus is produced by reducing phosphate rock with coal coke, and it is therefore assumed that 100 percent of the carbonate content of the phosphate rock will be converted to CO₂ in the elemental phosphorus production process. The calculation for CO₂ emissions is based on the assumption that phosphate rock consumption, for purposes other than phosphoric acid production, results in CO₂ emissions from 100 percent of the inorganic C content in phosphate rock, but none from the organic C content.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-47. Phosphoric acid production CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 0.9 and 1.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 18 percent below and 19 percent above the emission estimate of 1.0 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-47: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Phosphoric Acid Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
		Estimate	Range		Relative to Emission Estimate ^a	
		(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Phosphoric Acid Production	CO ₂	1.0	0.9	1.2	-18%	+19%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

Future improvements to the phosphoric acid production source category involve evaluating facility level greenhouse gas emissions data as a basis for improving emissions calculations from phosphoric acid production. Beginning in 2010, all U.S. phosphoric acid producers are required to monitor, calculate and report their greenhouse gas emissions to EPA through its Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program. Under the program, EPA will obtain data for 2010 from facilities based on use of higher tier methods and assess how this data could be used to improve the method for calculating emissions from the U.S. phosphoric acid production industry. Currently, data sources for the carbonate content of the phosphate rock are limited. If additional data sources are found, this information will be incorporated into future estimates. Additionally, as future improvement to the phosphoric acid uncertainty analysis, USGS Mineral Commodity Specialists will be contacted to verify uncertainty ranges associated with phosphate rock

imports and exports.

4.13. Iron and Steel Production (IPCC Source Category 2C1) and Metallurgical Coke Production

The production of iron and steel is an energy-intensive activity that also generates process-related emissions of CO₂ and CH₄. Process emissions occur at each step of steel production from the production of raw materials to the refinement of iron to the making of crude steel. In the United States, steel is produced through both primary and secondary processes. Historically, primary production—using a basic oxygen furnace (BOF) with pig iron as the primary feedstock—has been the dominant method. But secondary production through the use scrap steel and electric arc furnaces (EAFs) has increased significantly in recent years due to the economic advantages of steel recycling, which has been driven by the increased availability of scrap steel. Total production of crude steel in the United States in the time period between 2001 and 2008 ranged from a low of 99,321,000 tons to a high of 109,879,000 tons (2001 and 2004, respectively). But due to the decrease in demand caused by the global economic downturn, crude steel production in the United States decreased to 65,460,000 tons in 2009 (AISI 2010).

Metallurgical coke is an important input in the production of iron and steel. Coke is used to produce iron or pig iron feedstock from raw iron ore. The production of metallurgical coke from coking coal occurs both on-site at “integrated” iron and steel plants and off-site at “merchant” coke plants. Metallurgical coke is produced by heating coking coal in a coke oven in a low-oxygen environment. The process drives off the volatile components of the coking coal and produces coal (metallurgical) coke. Carbon containing byproducts of the metallurgical coke manufacturing process include coke oven gas, coal tar, coke breeze (small-grade coke oven coke with particle size <5mm) and light oil. Coke oven gas is recovered and used for underfiring the coke ovens and within the iron and steel mill. Small amounts of coke oven gas are also sold as synthetic natural gas outside of iron and steel mills (and are accounted for in the Energy chapter). Coal tar is used as a raw material to produce anodes used for primary aluminum production, electric arc furnace (EAF) steel production, and other electrolytic processes, and also is used in the production of other coal tar products. Light oil is sold to petroleum refiners who use the material as an additive for gasoline. The metallurgical coke production process produces CO₂ emissions and fugitive CH₄ emissions.

Iron is produced by first reducing iron oxide (iron ore) with metallurgical coke in a blast furnace. Iron can be introduced into the blast furnace in the form of raw iron ore, taconite pellets (9-16mm iron-containing spheres), briquettes, or sinter. In addition to metallurgical coke and iron, other inputs to the blast furnace include natural gas, fuel oil, and coke oven gas. The carbon in the metallurgical coke used in the blast furnace combines with oxides in the iron ore in a reducing atmosphere to produce blast furnace gas containing carbon monoxide (CO) and CO₂. The CO is then converted and emitted as CO₂ when combusted to either pre-heat the blast air used in the blast furnace or for other purposes at the steel mill. This pig iron or crude iron that is produced from this process contains about 3 to 5 percent carbon by weight. The pig iron production process in a blast furnace produces CO₂ emissions and fugitive CH₄ emissions.

Iron can also be produced through the direct reduction process; wherein, iron ore is reduced to metallic iron in the solid state at process temperatures less than 1000°C. Direct reduced iron production results in process emissions of CO₂ and emissions of CH₄ through the consumption of natural gas used during the reduction process.

Sintering is a thermal process by which fine iron-bearing particles, such as air emission control system dust, are baked, which causes the material to agglomerate into roughly one-inch pellets that are then recharged into the blast furnace for pig iron production. Iron ore particles may also be formed into larger pellets or briquettes by mechanical means, and then agglomerated by heating. The agglomerate is then crushed and screened to produce an iron-bearing feed that is charged into the blast furnace. The sintering process produces CO₂ and fugitive CH₄ emissions through the consumption of carbonaceous inputs (e.g., coke breeze) during the sintering process.

Steel is produced from varying levels of pig iron and scrap steel in specialized BOF and EAF steel-making furnaces. Carbon inputs to BOF steel-making furnaces include pig iron and scrap steel as well as natural gas, fuel oil, and fluxes (e.g., limestone, dolomite). In a BOF, the carbon in iron and scrap steel combines with high-purity oxygen to reduce the carbon content of the metal to the amount desired for the specified grade of steel. EAFs use carbon electrodes, charge carbon and other materials (e.g., natural gas) to aid in melting metal inputs (primarily recycled scrap steel), which are refined and alloyed to produce the desired grade of steel. CO₂ emissions occur in BOFs through the reduction process. In EAFs, CO₂ emissions result primarily from the consumption of carbon electrodes

and also from the consumption of supplemental materials used to augment the melting process.

In addition to the production processes mentioned above, CO₂ is also generated at iron and steel mills through the consumption of process by-products (e.g., blast furnace gas, coke oven gas) used for various purposes including heating, annealing, and electricity generation. Process by-products sold for use as synthetic natural gas are deducted and reported in the Energy chapter (emissions associated with natural gas and fuel oil consumption for these purposes are reported in the Energy chapter).

The majority of CO₂ emissions from the iron and steel production process come from the use of metallurgical coke in the production of pig iron and from the consumption of other process by-products at the iron and steel mill, with lesser amounts emitted from the use of flux and from the removal of carbon from pig iron used to produce steel. Some carbon is also stored in the finished iron and steel products.

According to the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006), the production of metallurgical coke from coking coal is considered to be an energy use of fossil fuel and the use of coke in iron and steel production is considered to be an industrial process source. Therefore, the Guidelines suggest that emissions from the production of metallurgical coke should be reported separately in the Energy source, while emissions from coke consumption in iron and steel production should be reported in the industrial process source. However, the approaches and emission estimates for both metallurgical coke production and iron and steel production are both presented here because the activity data used to estimate emissions from metallurgical coke production have significant overlap with activity data used to estimate iron and steel production emissions. Further, some by-products (e.g., coke oven gas) of the metallurgical coke production process are consumed during iron and steel production, and some by-products of the iron and steel production process (e.g., blast furnace gas) are consumed during metallurgical coke production. Emissions associated with the consumption of these by-products are attributed to point of consumption. As an example, CO₂ emissions associated with the combustion of coke oven gas in the blast furnace during pig iron production are attributed to pig iron production. Emissions associated with the use of conventional fuels (e.g., natural gas and fuel oil) for electricity generation, heating and annealing, or other miscellaneous purposes downstream of the iron and steelmaking furnaces are reported in the Energy chapter.

Metallurgical Coke Production

Emissions of CO₂ and CH₄ from metallurgical coke production in 2009 were 1.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. (956 Gg) and less than 0.002 Tg CO₂ Eq. (less than 0.00003 Gg), respectively (see Table 4-48 and Table 4-49), totaling 1.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. Emissions decreased in 2009, and have decreased overall since 1990. In 2009, domestic coke production decreased by 29 percent and has decreased overall since 1990. Coke production in 2009 was 46 percent lower than in 2000 and 60 percent below 1990. Overall, emissions from metallurgical coke production have declined by 61 percent (1.5 Tg CO₂ Eq.) from 1990 to 2009.

Table 4-48: CO₂ and CH₄ Emissions from Metallurgical Coke Production (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Year	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO ₂	2.5	2.2	2.0	1.9	2.1	2.3	1.0
CH ₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	2.5	2.2	2.0	1.9	2.1	2.3	1.0

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-49: CO₂ and CH₄ Emissions from Metallurgical Coke Production (Gg)

Year	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO ₂	2,470	2,195	2,043	1,919	2,054	2,334	956
CH ₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg

Iron and Steel Production

Emissions of CO₂ and CH₄ from iron and steel production in 2009 were 40.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (40,914 Gg) and 0.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (17.4 Gg), respectively (see Table 4-50 through Table 4-53), totaling approximately 41 Tg CO₂ Eq. Emissions decreased in 2009—largely due to decreased steel production associated with the global economic downturn—and have decreased overall since 1990 due to restructuring of the industry, technological improvements, and increased scrap steel utilization. CO₂ emission estimates include emissions from the consumption of

carbonaceous materials in the blast furnace, EAF, and BOF as well as blast furnace gas and coke oven gas consumption for other activities at the steel mill.

In 2009, domestic production of pig iron decreased by 44 percent. Overall, domestic pig iron production has declined since the 1990s. Pig iron production in 2009 was 60 percent lower than in 2000 and 62 percent below 1990. CO₂ emissions from steel production have declined by 15 percent (1.1 Tg CO₂ Eq.) since 1990, while overall CO₂ emissions from iron and steel production have declined by 58 percent (56.1 Tg CO₂ Eq.) from 1990 to 2009.

Table 4-50: CO₂ Emissions from Iron and Steel Production (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Year	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Sinter Production	2.4	2.2	1.7	1.4	1.4	1.3	0.8
Iron Production	47.9	33.8	19.6	23.9	27.3	25.7	15.9
Steel Production	7.5	7.9	8.5	8.9	9.4	7.5	6.4
Other Activities ^a	39.3	39.9	34.2	32.6	31.0	29.1	17.8
Total	97.1	83.7	63.9	66.9	69.0	63.7	40.9

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

^a Includes emissions from blast furnace gas and coke oven gas combustion for activities at the steel mill other than consumption in blast furnace, EAFs, or BOFs.

Table 4-51: CO₂ Emissions from Iron and Steel Production (Gg)

Year	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Sinter Production	2,448	2,158	1,663	1,418	1,383	1,299	763
Iron Production	47,880	33,818	19,570	23,928	27,262	25,696	15,948
Steel Production	7,475	7,887	8,489	8,924	9,382	7,541	6,389
Other Activities ^a	39,256	39,877	34,160	32,583	30,964	29,146	17,815
Total	97,058	83,740	63,882	66,852	68,991	63,682	40,914

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

^a Includes emissions from blast furnace gas and coke oven gas combustion for activities at the steel mill other than consumption in blast furnace, EAFs, or BOFs.

Table 4-52: CH₄ Emissions from Iron and Steel Production (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Year	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Sinter Production	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Iron Production	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.4
Total	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.4

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 4-53: CH₄ Emissions from Iron and Steel Production (Gg)

Year	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Sinter Production	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.3
Iron Production	44.7	43.1	33.5	34.1	32.7	30.4	17.1
Total	45.6	43.8	34.1	34.6	33.2	30.8	17.4

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

Emission estimates presented in this chapter are based on the methodologies provided by the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006), which call for a mass balance accounting of the carbonaceous inputs and outputs during the iron and steel production process and the metallurgical coke production process.

Metallurgical Coke Production

Coking coal is used to manufacture metallurgical (coal) coke that is used primarily as a reducing agent in the production of iron and steel, but is also used in the production of other metals including lead and zinc (see Lead

Table 4-56: Production and Consumption Data for the Calculation of CO₂ Emissions from Metallurgical Coke Production (million ft³)

Source/Activity Data	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Metallurgical Coke Production							
Coke Oven Gas Production ^a	250,767	149,477	114,213	114,386	109,912	103,191	66,155
Natural Gas Consumption	599	180	2,996	3,277	3,309	3,134	2,121
Blast Furnace Gas Consumption	24,602	26,075	4,460	5,505	5,144	4,829	2,435

^a Includes coke oven gas used for purposes other than coke oven underfiring only.

Iron and Steel Production

Emissions of CO₂ from sinter production and direct reduced iron production were estimated by multiplying total national sinter production and the total national direct reduced iron production by Tier 1 CO₂ emission factors (see Table 4-57). Because estimates of sinter production and direct reduced iron production were not available, production was assumed to equal consumption.

Table 4-57: CO₂ Emission Factors for Sinter Production and Direct Reduced Iron Production

Material Produced	Metric Ton CO ₂ /Metric Ton
Sinter	0.2
Direct Reduced Iron	0.7

Source: IPCC 2006, Table 4.1.

To estimate emissions from pig iron production in the blast furnace, the amount of C contained in the produced pig iron and blast furnace gas were deducted from the amount of C contained in inputs (i.e., metallurgical coke, sinter, natural ore, pellets, natural gas, fuel oil, coke oven gas, direct coal injection). The C contained in the pig iron, blast furnace gas, and blast furnace inputs was estimated by multiplying the material-specific carbon content by each material type (see Table 4-58). Carbon in blast furnace gas used to pre-heat the blast furnace air is combusted to form CO₂ during this process.

Emissions from steel production in EAFs were estimated by deducting the C contained in the steel produced from the carbon contained in the EAF anode, charge carbon, and scrap steel added to the EAF. Small amounts of C from direct reduced iron, pig iron, and flux additions to the EAFs were also included in the EAF calculation. For BOFs, estimates of C contained in BOF steel were deducted from carbon contained in inputs such as natural gas, coke oven gas, fluxes, and pig iron. In each case, the C was calculated by multiplying material-specific carbon contents by each material type (see Table 4-58). For EAFs, the amount of EAF anode consumed was approximated by multiplying total EAF steel production by the amount of EAF anode consumed per metric ton of steel produced (0.002 metric tons EAF anode per metric ton steel produced (AISI 2008b)). The amount of flux (e.g., limestone and dolomite) used during steel manufacture was deducted from the Limestone and Dolomite Use source category to avoid double-counting.

CO₂ emissions from the consumption of blast furnace gas and coke oven gas for other activities occurring at the steel mill were estimated by multiplying the amount of these materials consumed for these purposes by the material-specific C content (see Table 4-58).

CO₂ emissions associated with the sinter production, direct reduced iron production, pig iron production, steel production, and other steel mill activities were summed to calculate the total CO₂ emissions from iron and steel production (see Table 4-50 and Table 4-51).

Table 4-58: Material Carbon Contents for Iron and Steel Production

Material	kg C/kg
Coke	0.83
Direct Reduced Iron	0.02
Dolomite	0.13
EAF Carbon Electrodes	0.82
EAF Charge Carbon	0.83
Limestone	0.12
Pig Iron	0.04

Steel	0.01
Material	kg C/GJ
Coke Oven Gas	12.1
Blast Furnace Gas	70.8

Source: IPCC 2006, Table 4.3. Coke Oven Gas and Blast Furnace Gas, Table 1.3.

The production processes for sinter and pig iron result in fugitive emissions of CH₄, which are emitted via leaks in the production equipment rather than through the emission stacks or vents of the production plants. The fugitive emissions were calculated by applying Tier 1 emission factors taken from the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006) for sinter production and the 1995 IPCC Guidelines (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1995) (see Table 4-59) for pig iron production. The production of direct reduced iron also results in emissions of CH₄ through the consumption of fossil fuels (e.g., natural gas); however, these emissions estimates are excluded due to data limitations.

Table 4-59: CH₄ Emission Factors for Sinter and Pig Iron Production

Material Produced	Factor	Unit
Pig Iron	0.9	g CH ₄ /kg
Sinter	0.07	kg CH ₄ /metric ton

Source: Sinter (IPCC 2006, Table 4.2), Pig Iron (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1995, Table 2.2)

Sinter consumption and direct reduced iron consumption data were obtained from AISI's Annual Statistical Report (AISI 2004 through 2010) and through personal communications with AISI (2008b) (see Table 4-60). Data on direct reduced iron consumed in EAFs were not available for the years 1990, 1991, 1999, 2006, 2007, 2008, and 2009. EAF direct reduced iron consumption in 1990 and 1991 were assumed to equal consumption in 1992, and consumption in 1999 was assumed to equal the average of 1998 and 2000. EAF consumption in 2006, 2007, 2008, and 2009 were calculated by multiplying the total DRI consumption for all furnaces as provided in the 2009 AISI Annual Statistical Report by the EAF share of total DRI consumption in 2005 (the most recent year that data was available for EAF vs. BOF consumption of DRI). Data on direct reduced iron consumed in BOFs were not available for the years 1990 through 1994, 1999, 2006, 2007, 2008, and 2009. BOF direct reduced iron consumption in 1990 through 1994 was assumed to equal consumption in 1995, and consumption in 1999 was assumed to equal the average of 1998 and 2000. BOF consumption in 2006, 2007, and 2008 were calculated by multiplying the total DRI consumption for all furnaces as provided in the 2009 AISI Annual Statistical Report by the BOF share of total DRI consumption in 2005 (the most recent year that data was available for EAF vs. BOF consumption of DRI). The Tier 1 CO₂ emission factors for sinter production and direct reduced iron production were obtained through the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006). Data for pig iron production, coke, natural gas, fuel oil, sinter, and pellets consumed in the blast furnace; pig iron production; and blast furnace gas produced at the iron and steel mill and used in the metallurgical coke ovens and other steel mill activities were obtained from AISI's Annual Statistical Report (AISI 2004 through 2010) and through personal communications with AISI (2008b) (see Table 4-61). Data for EAF steel production, flux, EAF charge carbon, direct reduced iron, pig iron, scrap steel, and natural gas consumption as well as EAF steel production were obtained from AISI's Annual Statistical Report (AISI 2004 through 2010) and through personal communications with AISI (2011). The factor for the quantity of EAF anode consumed per ton of EAF steel produced was provided by AISI (AISI 2008b). Data for BOF steel production, flux, direct reduced iron, pig iron, scrap steel, natural gas, natural ore, pellet sinter consumption as well as BOF steel production were obtained from AISI's Annual Statistical Report (AISI 2004 through 2010) and through personal communications with AISI (2008b). Because data on pig iron consumption and scrap steel consumption in BOFs and EAFs were not available for 2006, 2007, and 2009, values for these years were calculated by multiplying the total pig iron and scrap steel consumption for all furnaces as provided in the 2009 AISI Annual Statistical Report by the BOF and EAF shares of total pig iron and scrap consumption in 2005 (the most recent year that data was available for EAF vs. BOF consumption of pig iron and scrap steel). Because pig iron consumption in EAFs was also not available in 2003 and 2004, the average of 2002 and 2005 pig iron consumption data were used. Data on coke oven gas and blast furnace gas consumed at the iron and steel mill other than in the EAF, BOF, or blast furnace were obtained from AISI's Annual Statistical Report (AISI 2004 through 2010) and through personal communications with AISI (2008b). Data on blast furnace gas and coke oven gas sold for use as synthetic natural gas were obtained through EIA's *Natural Gas Annual 2009* (EIA 2010b). C contents for direct reduced iron, EAF carbon electrodes, EAF charge carbon, limestone, dolomite, pig iron, and steel were provided by

the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006). The C contents for natural gas, fuel oil, and direct injection coal as well as the heat contents for the same fuels were provided by EIA (1992, 2010c). Heat contents for coke oven gas and blast furnace gas were provided in Table 2-2 of the report *Energy and Environmental Profile of the U.S. Iron and Steel Industry* (DOE 2000).

Table 4-60: Production and Consumption Data for the Calculation of CO₂ and CH₄ Emissions from Iron and Steel Production (Thousand Metric Tons)

Source/Activity Data	1990	2000
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Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The estimates of CO₂ and CH₄ emissions from metallurgical coke production are based on material production and consumption data and average carbon contents. Uncertainty is associated with the total U.S. coking coal consumption, total U.S. coke production and materials consumed during this process. Data for coking coal consumption and metallurgical coke production are from different data sources (EIA) than data for other carbonaceous materials consumed at coke plants (AISI), which does not include data for merchant coke plants. There is uncertainty associated with th

Planned Improvements

Future improvements to the Iron and Steel production source category involve evaluating facility level greenhouse gas emissions data as a basis for improving emissions calculations from iron and steel production. Beginning in 2010, all U.S. iron and steel producing facilities that emit over 25,000 tons of greenhouse gases (CO₂ Eq.) are required to monitor, calculate and report their greenhouse gas emissions to EPA through its Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program. Under the program, EPA will obtain data for 2010 from these facilities based on use of higher tier methods and assess how this data could be used to improve the method for calculating emissions from the U.S. iron and steel industry. Specifically, plans include attributing emissions estimates for the production of metallurgical coke to the Energy chapter as well as identifying the amount of carbonaceous materials, other than coking coal, consumed at merchant coke plants. Additional improvements include identifying the amount of coal used for direct injection and the amount of coke breeze, coal tar, and light oil produced during coke production. Efforts will also be made to identify inputs for preparing Tier 2 estimates for sinter and direct reduced iron production, as well as identifying information to better characterize emissions from the use of process gases and fuels within the Energy and Industrial Processes chapters.

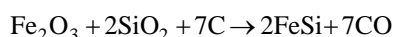
Recalculations Discussion

In the previous Inventory, coal tar production and coke breeze production were incorrectly estimated by multiplying the respective production factors by U.S. coke production at coke plants rather than U.S. coking coal consumption at coke plants (to which the coal tar and coke breeze production factors should be applied). This issue has been corrected and decreased the 1990 through 2008 emissions from metallurgical coke production by an average of 53 percent per year relative to the previous Inventory. The total 1990 through 2008 emissions for metallurgical coke and iron and steel production decreased by an average of 3 percent per year relative to the previous Inventory.

4.14. Ferroalloy Production (IPCC Source Category 2C2)

CO₂ and CH₄ are emitted from the production of several ferroalloys. Ferroalloys are composites of iron and other elements such as silicon, manganese, and chromium. When incorporated in alloy steels, ferroalloys are used to alter the material properties of the steel. Estimates from two types of ferrosilicon (25 to 55 percent and 56 to 95 percent silicon), silicon metal (about 98 percent silicon), and miscellaneous alloys (36 to 65 percent silicon) have been calculated. Emissions from the production of ferrochromium and ferromanganese are not included here because of the small number of manufacturers of these materials in the United States. Subsequently, government information disclosure rules prevent the publication of production data for these production facilities.

Similar to emissions from the production of iron and steel, CO₂ is emitted when metallurgical coke is oxidized during a high-temperature reaction with iron and the selected alloying element. Due to the strong reducing environment, CO is initially produced, and eventually oxidized to CO₂. A representative reaction equation for the production of 50 percent ferrosilicon is given below:



While most of the C contained in the process materials is released to the atmosphere as CO₂, a percentage is also released as CH₄ and other volatiles. The amount of CH₄ that is released is dependent on furnace efficiency, operation technique, and control technology.

Emissions of CO₂ from ferroalloy production in 2009 were 1.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1,469 Gg) (see Table 4-63 and Table 4-64), which is a 32 percent reduction since 1990. Emissions of CH₄ from ferroalloy production in 2009 were 0.01 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.406 Gg), which is a 40 percent decrease since 1990.

Table 4-63: CO₂ and CH₄ Emissions from Ferroalloy Production (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Year	1990		2000		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO ₂	2.2		1.9		1.4	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.5
CH ₄	+		+		+	+	+	+	+
Total	2.2		1.9		1.4	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.6

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 4-64: CO₂ and CH₄ Emissions from Ferroalloy Production (Gg)

Year	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO ₂	2,152	1,893	1,392	1,505	1,552	1,599	1,469
CH ₄	1	1	+	+	+	+	+

Methodology

Emissions of CO₂ and CH₄ from ferroalloy production were calculated by multiplying annual ferroalloy production by material-specific emission factors. Emission factors taken from the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006) were applied to ferroalloy production. For ferrosilicon alloys containing 25 to 55 percent silicon and miscellaneous alloys (including primarily magnesium-ferrosilicon, but also including other silicon alloys) containing 32 to 65 percent silicon, an emission factor for 45 percent silicon was applied for CO₂ (2.5 metric tons CO₂/metric ton of alloy produced) and an emission factor for 65 percent silicon was applied for CH₄ (1 kg CH₄/metric ton of alloy produced). Additionally, for ferrosilicon alloys containing 56 to 95 percent silicon, an emission factor for 75 percent silicon ferrosilicon was applied for both CO₂ and CH₄ (4 metric tons CO₂/metric ton alloy produced and 1 kg CH₄/metric ton of alloy produced, respectively). The emission factors for silicon metal equaled 5 metric tons CO₂/metric ton metal produced and 1.2 kg CH₄/metric ton metal produced. It was assumed that 100 percent of the ferroalloy production was produced using petroleum coke using an electric arc furnace process (IPCC 2006), although some ferroalloys may have been produced with coking coal, wood, other biomass, or graphite C inputs. The amount of petroleum coke consumed in ferroalloy production was calculated assuming that the petroleum coke used is 90 percent C and 10 percent inert material.

Ferroalloy production data for 1990 through 2009 (see Table 4-65) were obtained from the USGS through personal communications with the USGS Silicon Commodity Specialist (Corathers 2011) and through the *Minerals Yearbook: Silicon Annual Report* (USGS 1991 through 2010). Because USGS does not provide estimates of silicon metal production for 2006-2009, 2005 production data are used. Until 1999, the USGS reported production of ferrosilicon containing 25 to 55 percent silicon separately from production of miscellaneous alloys containing 32 to 65 percent silicon; beginning in 1999, the USGS reported these as a single category (see Table 4-65). The composition data for petroleum coke was obtained from Onder and Bagdoyan (1993).

Table 4-65: Production of Ferroalloys (Metric Tons)

Year	Ferrosilicon 25%-55%	Ferrosilicon 56%-95%	Silicon Metal	Misc. Alloys 32-65%
1990	321,385	109,566	145,744	72,442
2000	229,000	100,000	184,000	NA
2005	123,000	86,100	148,000	NA
2006	164,000	88,700	148,000	NA
2007	180,000	90,600	148,000	NA
2008	193,000	94,000	148,000	NA
2009	123,932	104,855	148,000	NA

NA (Not Available)

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Although some ferroalloys may be produced using wood or other biomass as a C source, information and data regarding these practices were not available. Emissions from ferroalloys produced with wood or other biomass would not be counted under this source because wood-based C is of biogenic origin.¹¹⁵ Even though emissions from ferroalloys produced with coking coal or graphite inputs would be counted in national trends, they may be generated with varying amounts of CO₂ per unit of ferroalloy produced. The most accurate method for these estimates would be to base calculations on the amount of reducing agent used in the process, rather than the amount of ferroalloys produced. These data, however, were not available.

¹¹⁵ Emissions and sinks of biogenic carbon are accounted for in the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter.

Emissions of CH₄ from ferroalloy production will vary depending on furnace specifics, such as type, operation technique, and control technology. Higher heating temperatures and techniques such as sprinkle charging will reduce CH₄ emissions; however, specific furnace information was not available or included in the CH₄ emission estimates.

Also, annual ferroalloy production is now reported by the USGS in three broad categories: ferroalloys containing 25 to 55 percent silicon (including miscellaneous alloys), ferroalloys containing 56 to 95 percent silicon, and silicon metal. It was assumed that the IPCC emission factors apply to all of the ferroalloy production processes, including miscellaneous alloys. Finally, production data for silvery pig iron (alloys containing less than 25 percent silicon) are not reported by the USGS to avoid disclosing company proprietary data. Emissions from this production category, therefore, were not estimated.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-66. Ferroalloy production CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 1.3 and 1.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 12 percent below and 13 percent above the emission estimate of 1.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. Ferroalloy production CH₄ emissions were estimated to be between a range of approximately 12 percent below and 12 percent above the emission estimate of 0.01 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-66: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Ferroalloy Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			Range		Relative to Emission Estimate ^a	
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	(%)	(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	(%)
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ferroalloy Production	CO ₂	1.5	1.3	1.7	-12%	+13%
Ferroalloy Production	CH ₄	+	+	+	-12%	+12%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

Future improvements to the ferroalloy production source category involve evaluating facility level greenhouse gas emissions data as a basis for improving emissions calculations from ferroalloy production. Beginning in 2010, all U.S. ferroalloy producing facilities that emit over 25,000 tons of greenhouse gases (CO₂ Eq.) are required to monitor, calculate and report their greenhouse gas emissions to EPA through its Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program. Under the program, EPA will obtain data for 2010 from these facilities based on use of higher tier methods and assess how this data could be used to improve the methodology and emissions factors for calculating emissions from the U.S. ferroalloy industry, in particular, including emission estimates from production of ferroalloys other than ferrosilicon and silicon metal. If data are available, emissions will be estimated for those ferroalloys. Additionally, research will be conducted to determine whether data are available concerning raw material consumption (e.g., coal coke, limestone and dolomite flux, etc.) for inclusion in ferroalloy production emission estimates.

4.15. Aluminum Production (IPCC Source Category 2C3)

Aluminum is a light-weight, malleable, and corrosion-resistant metal that is used in many manufactured products, including aircraft, automobiles, bicycles, and kitchen utensils. As of last reporting, the United States was the fourth largest producer of primary aluminum, with approximately seven percent of the world total (USGS 2009a). The United States was also a major importer of primary aluminum. The production of primary aluminum—in addition to consuming large quantities of electricity—results in process-related emissions of CO₂ and two perfluorocarbons (PFCs): perfluoromethane (CF₄) and perfluoroethane (C₂F₆).

CO₂ is emitted during the aluminum smelting process when alumina (aluminum oxide, Al₂O₃) is reduced to aluminum using the Hall-Heroult reduction process. The reduction of the alumina occurs through electrolysis in a

molten bath of natural or synthetic cryolite (Na_3AlF_6). The reduction cells contain a carbon lining that serves as the cathode. Carbon is also contained in the anode, which can be a carbon mass of paste, coke briquettes, or prebaked carbon blocks from petroleum coke. During reduction, most of this carbon is oxidized and released to the atmosphere as CO_2 .

Process emissions of CO_2 from aluminum production were estimated to be 3.0 Tg CO_2 Eq. (3,009 Gg) in 2009 (see Table 4-67). The carbon anodes consumed during aluminum production consist of petroleum coke and, to a minor extent, coal tar pitch. The petroleum coke portion of the total CO_2 process emissions from aluminum production is considered to be a non-energy use of petroleum coke, and is accounted for here and not under the CO_2 from Fossil Fuel Combustion source category of the Energy sector. Similarly, the coal tar pitch portion of these CO_2 process emissions is accounted for here.

Table 4-67: CO_2 Emissions from Aluminum Production (Tg CO_2 Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO_2 Eq.	Gg
1990	6.8	6,831
2000	6.1	6,086
2005	4.1	4,142
2006	3.8	3,801
2007	4.3	4,251
2008	4.5	4,477
2009	3.0	3,009

In addition to CO_2 emissions, the aluminum production industry is also a source of PFC emissions. During the smelting process, when the alumina ore content of the electrolytic bath falls below critical levels required for electrolysis, rapid voltage increases occur, which are termed “anode effects.” These anode effects cause carbon from the anode and fluorine from the dissociated molten cryolite bath to combine, thereby producing fugitive emissions of CF_4 and C_2F_6 . In general, the magnitude of emissions for a given smelter and level of production depends on the frequency and duration of these anode effects. As the frequency and duration of the anode effects increase, emissions increase.

Since 1990, emissions of CF_4 and C_2F_6 have declined by 92 percent and 89 percent, respectively, to 1.3 Tg CO_2 Eq. of CF_4 (0.20 Gg) and 0.30 Tg CO_2 Eq. of C_2F_6 (0.032 Gg) in 2009, as shown in Table 4-68 and Table 4-69. This decline is due both to reductions in domestic aluminum production and to actions taken by aluminum smelting companies to reduce the frequency and duration of anode effects. Since 1990, aluminum production has declined by 57 percent, while the combined CF_4 and C_2F_6 emission rate (per metric ton of aluminum produced) has been reduced by 80 percent.

Table 4-68: PFC Emissions from Aluminum Production (Tg CO_2 Eq.)

Year	CF_4	C_2F_6	Total
1990	15.9	2.7	18.5
2000	7.8	0.8	8.6
2005	2.5	0.4	3.0
2006	2.1	0.4	2.5
2007	3.2	0.6	3.8
2008	2.2	0.5	2.7
2009	1.3	0.3	1.6

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 4-69: PFC Emissions from Aluminum Production (Gg)

Year	CF_4	C_2F_6
1990	2.4	0.3
2000	1.2	0.1
2005	0.4	+

2006	0.3	+
2007	0.5	0.1
2008	0.3	0.1
2009	0.2	+

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Gg.

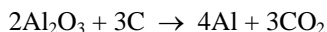
In 2009, U.S. primary aluminum production totaled approximately 1.7 million metric tons, a 35 percent decrease from 2008 production levels (USAA 2010). In 2009, six companies managed production at 13 operational primary aluminum smelters. Four smelters were closed the entire year, and demolition of one smelter that had been idle since 2000 was completed in 2009. Of the operating smelters, three were temporarily idled during some fraction of 2009, and parts of four others were temporarily closed in 2009 (USGS 2010a). During 2009, U.S. primary aluminum production was less for every month when compared to the corresponding month in 2008 (USGS 2009b, USGS 2010b).

For 2010, total production during January through September was approximately 1.28 million metric tons, compared to 1.32 million metric tons for the same period in 2009, only a 3 percent decrease (USGS 2010c). Based on the similarity in production, process CO₂ and PFC emissions are likely to be similar over this period in 2009 given no significant changes in process controls at operational facilities.

Methodology

CO₂ emissions released during aluminum production were estimated by combining individual partner reported data with process-specific emissions modeling. These estimates are based on information gathered by EPA's Voluntary Aluminum Industrial Partnership (VAIP) program.

Most of the CO₂ emissions released during aluminum production occur during the electrolysis reaction of the carbon anode, as described by the following reaction:



For prebake smelter technologies, CO₂ is also emitted during the anode baking process. These emissions can account for approximately 10 percent of total process CO₂ emissions from prebake smelters.

Depending on the availability of smelter-specific data, the CO₂ emitted from electrolysis at each smelter was estimated from: (1) the smelter's annual anode consumption, (2) the smelter's annual aluminum production and rate of anode consumption (per ton of aluminum produced) for previous and /or following years, or, (3) the smelter's annual aluminum production and IPCC default CO₂ emission factors. The first approach tracks the consumption and C content of the anode, assuming that all C in the anode is converted to CO₂. Sulfur, ash, and other impurities in the anode are subtracted from the anode consumption to arrive at total C consumption. This approach corresponds to either the IPCC Tier 2 or Tier 3 method, depending on whether smelter-specific data on anode impurities are used. The second approach interpolates smelter-specific anode consumption rates to estimate emissions during years for which anode consumption data are not available. This avoids substantial errors and discontinuities that could be introduced by reverting to Tier 1 methods for those years. The last approach corresponds to the IPCC Tier 1 method (2006) and is used in the absence of present or historic anode consumption data.

The equations used to estimate CO₂ emissions in the Tier 2 and 3 methods vary depending on smelter type (IPCC 2006). For Prebake cells, the process formula accounts for various parameters, including net anode consumption, and the sulfur, ash, and impurity content of the baked anode. For anode baking emissions, the formula accounts for packing coke consumption, the sulfur and ash content of the packing coke, as well as the pitch content and weight of baked anodes produced. For Söderberg cells, the process formula accounts for the weight of paste consumed per metric ton of aluminum produced, and pitch properties, including sulfur, hydrogen, and ash content.

Through the VAIP, anode consumption (and some anode impurity) data have been reported for 1990, 2000, 2003, 2004, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008, and 2009. Where available, smelter-specific process data reported under the VAIP were used; however, if the data were incomplete or unavailable, information was supplemented using industry average values recommended by IPCC (2006). Smelter-specific CO₂ process data were provided by 18 of the 23 operating smelters in 1990 and 2000, by 14 out of 16 operating smelters in 2003 and 2004, 14 out of 15 operating smelters in 2005, 13 out of 14 operating smelters in 2006, 5 out of 14 operating smelters in, 2007 and 2008, and 3 out of 13 operating smelters in 2009. For years where CO₂ process data were not reported by these companies, estimates were developed through linear interpolation, and/or assuming industry default values.

In the absence of any previous smelter specific process data (i.e., 1 out of 13 smelters in 2009, 1 out of 14 smelters in 2006, 2007, and 2008, 1 out of 15 smelters in 2005, and 5 out of 23 smelters between 1990 and 2003), CO₂ emission estimates were estimated using Tier 1 Söderberg and/or Prebake emission factors (metric ton of CO₂ per metric ton of aluminum produced) from IPCC (2006).

Aluminum production data for 10 out of 13 operating smelters were reported under the VAIP in 2009. Between 1990 and 2008, production data were provided by 21 of the 23 U.S. smelters that operated during at least part of that period. For the non-reporting smelters, production was estimated based on the difference between reporting smelters and national aluminum production levels (USAA 2010), with allocation to specific smelters based on reported production capacities (USGS 2009a).

PFC emissions from aluminum production were estimated using a per-unit production emission factor that is expressed as a function of operating parameters (anode effect frequency and duration), as follows:

$$\text{PFC (CF}_4 \text{ or C}_2\text{F}_6\text{) kg/metric ton Al} = S \times (\text{Anode Effect Minutes/Cell-Day})$$

where,

$$S = \text{Slope coefficient ((kg PFC/metric ton Al)/(Anode Effect Minutes/Cell-Day))}$$

$$\text{Anode Effect Minutes/Cell-Day} = \text{Anode Effect Frequency/Cell-Day} \times \text{Anode Effect Duration (minutes)}$$

This approach corresponds to either the Tier 3 or the Tier 2 approach in the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006), depending upon whether the slope-coefficient is smelter-specific (Tier 3) or technology-specific (Tier 2). For 1990 through 2009, smelter-specific slope coefficients were available and were used for smelters representing between 30 and 94 percent of U.S. primary aluminum production. The percentage changed from year to year as some smelters closed or changed hands and as the production at remaining smelters fluctuated. For smelters that did not report smelter-specific slope coefficients, IPCC technology-specific slope coefficients were applied (IPCC 2000, 2006). The slope coefficients were combined with smelter-specific anode effect data collected by aluminum companies and reported under the VAIP, to estimate emission factors over time. For 1990 through 2009, smelter-specific anode effect data were available for smelters representing between 80 and 100 percent of U.S. primary aluminum production. Where smelter-specific anode effect data were not available, industry averages were used.

For all smelters, emission factors were multiplied by annual production to estimate annual emissions at the smelter level. For 1990 through 2009, smelter-specific production data were available for smelters representing between 30 and 100 percent of U.S. primary aluminum production. (For the years after 2000, this percentage was near the high end of the range.) Production at non-reporting smelters was estimated by calculating the difference between the production reported under VAIP and the total U.S. production supplied by USGS or USAA and then allocating this difference to non-reporting smelters in proportion to their production capacity. Emissions were then aggregated across smelters to estimate national emissions.

National primary aluminum production data for 2009 were obtained via the United States Aluminum Association (USAA 2010). For 1990 through 2001, and 2006 (see Table 4-70) data were obtained from USGS, Mineral Industry Surveys: Aluminum Annual Report (USGS 1995, 1998, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2007). For 2002 through 2005, and 2007 through 2008 national aluminum production data were obtained from the USAA's Primary Aluminum Statistics (USAA 2004, 2005, 2006, 2008, 2009).

Table 4-70: Production of Primary Aluminum (Gg)

Year	Gg
1990	4,048
2000	3,668
2005	2,478
2006	2,284
2007	2,560
2008	2,659
2009	1,727

Uncertainty and Time Series Consistency

The overall uncertainties associated with the 2009 CO₂, CF₄, and C₂F₆ emission estimates were calculated using Approach 2, as defined by IPCC (2006). For CO₂, uncertainty was assigned to each of the parameters used to estimate CO₂ emissions. Uncertainty surrounding reported production data was assumed to be 1 percent (IPCC 2006). For additional variables, such as net C consumption, and sulfur and ash content in baked anodes, estimates for uncertainties associated with reported and default data were obtained from IPCC (2006). A Monte Carlo analysis was applied to estimate the overall uncertainty of the CO₂ emission estimate for the U.S. aluminum industry as a whole, and the results are provided below.

To estimate the uncertainty associated with emissions of CF₄ and C₂F₆, the uncertainties associated with three variables were estimated for each smelter: (1) the quantity of aluminum produced, (2) the anode effect minutes per cell day (which may be reported directly or calculated as the product of anode effect frequency and anode effect duration), and, (3) the smelter- or technology-specific slope coefficient. A Monte Carlo analysis was then applied to estimate the overall uncertainty of the emission estimate for each smelter and for the U.S. aluminum industry as a whole.

The results of this quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-71. Aluminum production-related CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 2.90 and 3.12 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 4 percent below to 4 percent above the emission estimate of 3.01 Tg CO₂ Eq. Also, production-related CF₄ emissions were estimated to be between 1.14 and 1.44 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 12 percent below to 12 percent above the emission estimate of 1.29 Tg CO₂ Eq. Finally, aluminum production-related C₂F₆ emissions were estimated to be between 0.25 and 0.35 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 17 percent below to 19 percent above the emission estimate of 0.30 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-71: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ and PFC Emissions from Aluminum Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to 2009 Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Aluminum Production	CO ₂	3.0	2.9	3.1	-4%	+4%
Aluminum Production	CF ₄	1.3	1.1	1.4	-12%	+12%
Aluminum Production	C ₂ F ₆	0.3	0.2	0.4	-17%	+19%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

The 2009 emission estimate was developed using either company-wide or site-specific PFC slope coefficients for all but 1 of the 14 operating smelters where default IPCC (2006) slope data was used. In some cases, where smelters are owned by one company, data have been reported on a company-wide basis as totals or weighted averages. Consequently, in the Monte Carlo analysis, uncertainties in anode effect minutes per cell-day, slope coefficients, and aluminum production have been applied to the company as a whole and not to each smelter. This probably overestimates the uncertainty associated with the cumulative emissions from these smelters, because errors that were in fact independent were treated as if they were correlated. It is therefore likely that the uncertainties calculated above for the total U.S. 2009 emission estimates for CF₄ and C₂F₆ are also overestimated.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

Beginning in 2010, all primary U.S. aluminum producing facilities are required to monitor, calculate and report their greenhouse gas emissions to EPA through its Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program. Under the program, EPA will obtain data for 2010 from these facilities based on use of higher tier methods and assess how this data could be used to improve the methodology and emissions factors for calculating emissions from the U.S. primary aluminum production industry.

4.16. Magnesium Production and Processing (IPCC Source Category 2C4)

The magnesium metal production and casting industry uses sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆) as a cover gas to prevent the rapid oxidation of molten magnesium in the presence of air. Sulfur hexafluoride has been used in this application around the world for more than twenty-five years. A dilute gaseous mixture of SF₆ with dry air and/or CO₂ is blown over molten magnesium metal to induce and stabilize the formation of a protective crust. A small portion of the SF₆ reacts with the magnesium to form a thin molecular film of mostly magnesium oxide and magnesium fluoride. The amount of SF₆ reacting in magnesium production and processing is considered to be negligible, and thus all SF₆ used is assumed to be emitted into the atmosphere. Although alternative cover gases, such as AM-cover™ (containing HFC-134a), Novec™ 612 and dilute SO₂ systems can be used, many facilities in the United States are still using traditional SF₆ cover gas systems.

The magnesium industry emitted 1.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.04 Gg) of SF₆ in 2009, representing a decrease of approximately 45 percent from 2008 emissions (See Table 4-72). The decrease can be attributed to die casting facilities in the United States closing or halting production due to reduced demand from the American auto industry and other industrial sectors (USGS 2010a). Production associated with primary and secondary facilities also dropped in 2009. The significant reduction in emissions can also be attributed to industry efforts to switch to cover gas alternatives, such as sulfur dioxide, as part of the EPA's SF₆ Emission Reduction Partnership for the Magnesium Industry.

Table 4-72: SF₆ Emissions from Magnesium Production and Processing (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	5.4	0.2
2000	3.0	0.1
2005	2.9	0.1
2006	2.9	0.1
2007	2.6	0.1
2008	1.9	0.1
2009	1.1	0.04

Methodology

Emission estimates for the magnesium industry incorporate information provided by industry participants in EPA's SF₆ Emission Reduction Partnership for the Magnesium Industry. The Partnership started in 1999 and, currently, participating companies represent 100 percent of U.S. primary and secondary production and 90 percent of the casting sector production (i.e., die, sand, permanent mold, wrought, and anode casting). Absolute emissions for 1999 through 2009 from primary production, secondary production (i.e., recycling), and die casting were generally reported by Partnership participants. Partners reported their SF₆ consumption, which was assumed to be equivalent to emissions. When a partner did not report emissions, they were estimated based on the metal processed and emission rate reported by that partner in previous and (if available) subsequent years. Where data for subsequent years was not available, metal production and emissions rates were extrapolated based on the trend shown by partners reporting in the current and previous years. When it was determined a Partner is no longer in production, their metal production and emissions rates were set to zero if no activity information was available; in one case a partner that closed mid-year was estimated to have produced 50 percent of the metal from the prior year.

Emission factors for 2002 to 2006 for sand casting activities were also acquired through the Partnership. For 2007, 2008 and 2009, the sand casting partner did not report and the reported emission factor from 2005 was utilized as being representative of the industry. The 1999 through 2009 emissions from casting operations (other than die) were estimated by multiplying emission factors (kg SF₆ per metric ton of metal produced or processed) by the amount of metal produced or consumed. The emission factors for casting activities are provided below in Table 4-73. The emission factors for primary production, secondary production and sand casting are withheld to protect company-specific production information. However, the emission factor for primary production has not risen above the average 1995 partner value of 1.1 kg SF₆ per metric ton. The emission factors for the other industry sectors (i.e., permanent mold, wrought, and anode casting) were based on discussions with industry representatives. U.S. magnesium consumption (casting) data from 1990 through 2009 were available from the USGS (USGS 2002, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2010).

Table 4-73: SF₆ Emission Factors (kg SF₆ per metric ton of magnesium)

Year	Die Casting	Permanent Mold	Wrought	Anodes
1999	2.14 ^a	2	1	1
2000	0.72	2	1	1
2001	0.72	2	1	1
2002	0.71	2	1	1
2003	0.81	2	1	1
2004	0.81	2	1	1
2005	0.79	2	1	1
2006	0.86	2	1	1
2007	0.67	2	1	1
2008	1.15 ^b	2	1	1
2009	1.77 ^b	2	1	1

^a This is a weighted average that includes an estimated emission factor of 5.2 kg SF₆ per metric ton of magnesium for die casters that did not participate in the Partnership in 1999. These die casters were assumed to be similar to partners that cast small parts. Due to process requirements, these casters consume larger quantities of SF₆ per metric ton of processed magnesium than casters that process large parts. In later years, die casters participating in the Partnership accounted for all U.S. die casting tracked by USGS.

^b The emission factor for die casting increased significantly between 2007 and 2008, and again between 2008 and 2009. These increases occurred for two reasons. First, one of the die casters with a significant share of U.S. production that had used SF₆ as a cover gas and that had maintained a relatively low emission rate began using an alternative cover gas in 2008. Since the SF₆ emission factor provided here is based only on die casting operations that use SF₆ as a cover gas, the removal of the low-emitting die caster from the SF₆-using group increased the weighted average emission rate of that group. Second, one SF₆-using die caster experienced a significant leak in its cover gas distribution system in 2009 that resulted in an abnormally high SF₆ emission rate.

To estimate emissions for 1990 through 1998, industry emission factors were multiplied by the corresponding metal production and consumption (casting) statistics from USGS. The primary production emission factors were 1.2 kg per metric ton for 1990 through 1993, and 1.1 kg per metric ton for 1994 through 1997. These factors were based on information provided by U.S. primary producers. For die casting, an emission factor of 4.1 kg per metric ton was used for the period 1990 through 1996. This factor was drawn from an international survey of die casters (Gjestland & Magers 1996). For 1996 through 1998, the emission factors for primary production and die casting were assumed to decline linearly to the level estimated based on partner reports in 1999. This assumption is consistent with the trend in SF₆ sales to the magnesium sector that is reported in the RAND survey of major SF₆ manufacturers, which shows a decline of 70 percent from 1996 to 1999 (RAND 2002). Sand casting emission factors for 2002 through 2009 were provided by the Magnesium Partnership participants, and 1990 through 2001 emission factors for this process were assumed to have been the same as the 2002 emission factor. The emission factor for secondary production from 1990 through 1998 was assumed to be constant at the 1999 average partner value. The emission factors for the other processes (i.e., permanent mold, wrought, and anode casting), about which less is known, were assumed to remain constant at levels defined in Table 4-73.

Uncertainty

To estimate the uncertainty surrounding the estimated 2009 SF₆ emissions from magnesium production and processing, the uncertainties associated with three variables were estimated (1) emissions reported by magnesium producers and processors that participate in the Magnesium Partnership, (2) emissions estimated for magnesium producers and processors that participate in the Partnership but did not report this year, and (3) emissions estimated for magnesium producers and processors that do not participate in the Partnership. An uncertainty of 5 percent was assigned to the data reported by each participant in the Partnership. If partners did not report emissions data during the current reporting year, SF₆ emissions data were estimated using available emission factor and production information reported in prior years; the extrapolation was based on the average trend for partners reporting in the current reporting year and the year prior. The uncertainty associated with the SF₆ usage estimate generated from the extrapolated emission factor and production information was estimated to be 30 percent for each year of extrapolation. The lone sand casting partner did not report in the past two reporting years and its activity and emission factor were held constant at 2005 levels due to a reporting anomaly in 2006 because of malfunctions at the facility. The uncertainty associated with the SF₆ usage for the sand casting partner was 52 percent. For those industry processes that are not represented in Partnership, such as permanent mold and wrought casting, SF₆ emissions were estimated using production and consumption statistics reported by USGS and estimated process-

specific emission factors (see Table 4-73). The uncertainties associated with the emission factors and USGS-reported statistics were assumed to be 75 percent and 25 percent, respectively. Emissions associated with sand casting activities utilized a partner-reported emission factor with an uncertainty of 75 percent. In general, where precise quantitative information was not available on the uncertainty of a parameter, a conservative (upper-bound) value was used.

Additional uncertainties exist in these estimates that are not addressed in this methodology, such as the basic assumption that SF₆ neither reacts nor decomposes during use. The melt surface reactions and high temperatures associated with molten magnesium could potentially cause some gas degradation. Recent measurement studies have identified SF₆ cover gas degradation in die casting applications on the order of 20 percent (Bartos et al. 2007). Sulfur hexafluoride may also be used as a cover gas for the casting of molten aluminum with high magnesium content; however, the extent to which this technique is used in the United States is unknown.

The results of this Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-74. SF₆ emissions associated with magnesium production and processing were estimated to be between 1.01 and 1.10 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 6 percent below to 5 percent above the 2008 emission estimate of 1.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-74: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for SF₆ Emissions from Magnesium Production and Processing (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Magnesium Production	SF ₆	1.05	1.01	1.10	-4%	+4%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Recalculations Discussion

The uncertainty estimates for 2009 are lower relative to the previous inventory uncertainty estimate for 2008 emissions, which is likely due to the fact that emission estimates for 2009 are based more on actual reported data than emission estimates for 2008 were in the 1990-2008 inventory, with two emission sources using projected (highly uncertain) estimates.

Planned Improvements

Cover gas research conducted by the EPA over the last decade has found that SF₆ used for magnesium melt protection can have degradation rates on the order of 20 percent in die casting applications (Bartos et al. 2007). Current emission estimates assume (per the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006)) that all SF₆ utilized is emitted to the atmosphere. Additional research may lead to a revision of IPCC Guidelines to reflect this phenomenon and until such time, developments in this sector will be monitored for possible application to the inventory methodology. Another issue that will be addressed in future inventories is the likely adoption of alternate cover gases by U.S. magnesium producers and processors. These cover gases, which include AM-coverTM (containing HFC-134a) and NovecTM 612, have lower GWPs than SF₆.

processes result in non-energy CO₂ emissions (Viklund-White 2000).

During the electrothermic zinc production process, roasted zinc concentrate and secondary zinc products enter a sinter feed where they are burned to remove impurities before entering an electric retort furnace. Metallurgical coke added to the electric retort furnace reduces the zinc oxides and produces vaporized zinc, which is then captured in a vacuum condenser. This reduction process produces non-energy CO₂ emissions (Sjardin 2003).

In the Waelz kiln process, EAF dust, which is captured during the recycling of galvanized steel, enters a kiln along with a reducing agent—often metallurgical coke. When kiln temperatures reach approximately 1100–1200°C, zinc fumes are produced, which are combusted with air entering the kiln. This combustion forms zinc oxide, which is collected in a baghouse or electrostatic precipitator, and is then leached to remove chloride and fluoride. Through this process, approximately 0.33 metric ton of zinc is produced for every metric ton of EAF dust treated (Viklund-White 2000).

In 2009, U.S. primary and secondary zinc production was estimated to total 286,000 metric tons (USGS 2010). Since reported activity data for 2009 were not available for all necessary inputs in time for this publication, production values in 2009 were assumed to equal 2008 values in some cases. The resulting emissions of CO₂ from zinc production in 2009 were estimated to be 0.97 Tg CO₂ Eq. (966 Gg) (see Table 4-75). All 2009 CO₂ emissions resulted from secondary zinc production.

Table 4-75: CO₂ Emissions from Zinc Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	0.7	667
2000	1.0	997
2005	1.1	1088
2006	1.1	1088
2007	1.1	1081
2008	1.2	1230
2009	1.0	966

Emissions from zinc production in the U.S. have increased overall due to a gradual shift from non-emissive primary production to emissive secondary production. In 2009, emissions were estimated to be 45 percent higher than they were in 1990.

Methodology

Non-energy CO₂ emissions from zinc production result from the electrothermic and Waelz kiln secondary production processes, which both use metallurgical coke or other C-based materials as reductants. Sjardin (2003) provides an emission factor of 0.43 metric tons CO₂/metric ton zinc produced for emissive zinc production processes; however, this emission factor is based on the Imperial Smelting Furnace production process. Because the Imperial Smelting Furnace production process is not used in the United States, emission factors specific to electrothermic and Waelz kiln processes were needed. Due to the limited amount of information available for these electrothermic processes, only Waelz kiln process-specific emission factors were developed. These emission factors were applied to both the Waelz kiln and electrothermic secondary zinc production processes.

A Waelz kiln emission factor based on the amount of zinc produced was developed based on the amount of metallurgical coke consumed for non-energy purposes per ton of zinc produced, 1.19 metric tons coke/metric ton zinc produced (Viklund-White 2000), and the following equation:

$$EF_{\text{Waelz Kiln}} = \frac{1.19 \text{ metric tons coke}}{\text{metric tons zinc}} \times \frac{0.85 \text{ metric tons C}}{\text{metric tons coke}} \times \frac{3.67 \text{ metric tons CO}_2}{\text{metric tons C}} = \frac{3.70 \text{ metric tons CO}_2}{\text{metric tons zinc}}$$

In addition, a Waelz kiln emission factor based on the amount of EAF dust consumed was developed based on the amount of metallurgical coke consumed per ton of EAF dust consumed, 0.4 metric tons coke/metric ton EAF dust

consumed (Viklund-White 2000), and the following equation:¹¹⁶

$$EF_{\text{EAFDust}} = \frac{0.4 \text{ metric tons coke}}{\text{metric tons EAF dust}} \times \frac{0.85 \text{ metric tons C}}{\text{metric tons coke}} \times \frac{3.67 \text{ metric tons CO}_2}{\text{metric tons C}} = \frac{1.24 \text{ metric tons CO}_2}{\text{metric tons EAF Dust}}$$

The only companies in the United States that use emissive technology to produce secondary zinc products are Horsehead Corp and Steel Dust Recycling. For Horsehead Corp, EAF dust is recycled in Waelz kilns at their Beaumont, TX; Calumet, IL; Palmerton, PA; and Rockwood, TN facilities (and soon to be performed at their new South Carolina facility). These Waelz kiln facilities produce intermediate zinc products (crude zinc oxide or calcine), most of which is transported to their Monaca, PA facility where the products are smelted into refined zinc using electrothermic technology. Some of Horsehead's intermediate zinc products that are not smelted at Monaca are instead exported to other countries around the world (Horsehead Corp 2010). Steel Dust Recycling recycles EAF dust into intermediate zinc products using Waelz kilns, and then sells the intermediate products to companies who smelt it into refined products.

The total amount of EAF dust consumed by Horsehead Corp at their Waelz kilns was available from Horsehead financial reports for years 2006 through 2009 (Horsehead 2010). Consumption levels for 1990 through 2005 were extrapolated using the percentage change in annual refined zinc production at secondary smelters in the United States as provided by USGS Minerals Yearbook: Zinc (USGS 1994 through 2010). The EAF dust consumption values for each year were then multiplied by the 1.24 metric tons CO₂/metric ton EAF dust consumed emission factor to develop CO₂ emission estimates for Horsehead's Waelz kiln facilities.

The amount of EAF dust consumed by the Steel Dust Recycling facility for 2008 and 2009 (the only two years it has been in operation) was not publically available. Therefore, these consumption values were estimated by calculating the 2008 and 2009 capacity utilization of Horsehead's Waelz kilns and multiplying this utilization ratio by the capacity of Steel Dust Recycling's facility, which were available from the company (Steel Dust Recycling LLC 2010). The 1.24 metric tons CO₂/metric ton EAF dust consumed emission factor was then applied to Steel Dust Recycling's estimated EAF dust consumption to develop CO₂ emission estimates for its Waelz kiln facility.

Refined zinc production levels for Horsehead's Monaca, PA facility (utilizing electrothermic technology) were available from the company for years 2005 through 2009 (Horsehead Corp 2010, Horsehead Corp 2008). Production levels for 1990 through 2004 were extrapolated using the percentage changes in annual refined zinc production at secondary smelters in the United States as provided by USGS Minerals Yearbook: Zinc (USGS 1994 through 2010). The 3.70 metric tons CO₂/metric ton zinc emission factor was then applied to the Monaca facility's production levels to estimate CO₂ emissions for the facility. The Waelz kiln production emission factor was applied in this case rather than the EAF dust consumption emission factor since Horsehead's Monaca facility did not consume EAF dust.

Table 4-76: Zinc Production (Metric Tons)

Year	Primary	Secondary
1990	262,704	95,708
2000	227,800	143,000
2005	191,120	156,000
2006	113,000	156,000
2007	121,000	157,000
2008	125,000	161,000
2009	125,000	161,000

¹¹⁶ For Waelz kiln based secondary zinc production, IPCC recommends the use of emission factors based on EAF dust consumption rather than the amount of zinc produced since the amount of reduction materials used is more directly dependent on the amount of EAF dust consumed (IPCC 2006).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The uncertainties contained in these estimates are two-fold, relating to activity data and emission factors used.

First, there is uncertainty associated with the amount of EAF dust consumed in the United States to produce secondary zinc using emission-intensive Waelz kilns. The estimate for the total amount of EAF dust consumed in Waelz kilns is based on (1) an EAF dust consumption value reported annually by Horsehead Corporation as part of its financial reporting to the Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC), and (2) an estimate of the amount of EAF dust consumed at a Waelz kiln facility operated in Alabama by Steel Dust Recycling LLC. Since actual EAF dust consumption information is not available for the Steel Dust Recycling LLC facility, the amount is estimated by multiplying the EAF dust recycling capacity of the facility (available from the company's Web site) by the capacity utilization factor for Horsehead Corporation (which is available from Horsehead's financial reports). Therefore, there is uncertainty associated with the assumption that the capacity utilization of Steel Dust Recycling LLC's Waelz kiln facility is equal to the capacity utilization of Horsehead's Waelz kiln facility. Second, there are uncertainties associated with the emission factors used to estimate CO₂ emissions from secondary zinc production processes. The Waelz kiln emission factors are based on materials balances for metallurgical coke and EAF dust consumed as provided by Viklund-White (2000). Therefore, the accuracy of these emission factors depend upon the accuracy of these materials balances. Data limitations prevented the development of emission factors for the electrothermic process. Therefore, emission factors for the Waelz kiln process were applied to both electrothermic and Waelz kiln production processes. The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-77. Zinc production CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 0.8 and 1.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 17 percent below and 18 percent above the emission estimate of 1.0 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-77: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Zinc Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Zinc Production	CO ₂	1.0	0.8	1.1	-17%	+18%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

Future improvements to the zinc production source category involve evaluating facility level greenhouse gas emissions data as a basis for improving emissions calculations from zinc production. Beginning in 2010, all U.S. zinc producing facilities (both primary and secondary) that emit over 25,000 tons of greenhouse gases (CO₂ Eq.) are required to monitor, calculate and report their greenhouse gas emissions to EPA through its Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program. Under the program, EPA will obtain data for 2010 from these facilities based on use of higher tier methods and assess how this data could be used to improve the methodology and emissions factors for calculating emissions from the U.S. zinc production industry.

Recalculations Discussion

The methodology for estimating CO₂ emissions from zinc production was revised for the current Inventory based on the availability of new data regarding secondary zinc production in the United States. The previous Inventory methodology assumed that two facilities had produced zinc in the United States using emissive processes since 1990: Horsehead Corporation's Monaca, PA facility (electrothermic) and Horsehead Corporation's Palmerton, PA facility (Waelz kiln). The 3.70 metric tons CO₂/metric ton zinc emission factor was applied to the estimated refined zinc production at the Monaca, PA electrothermic facility, and the 1.24 metric tons CO₂/metric ton EAF dust consumed emission factor was applied to the estimated EAF dust consumption at the Palmerton, PA Waelz kiln facility. The annual zinc production (for the Monaca facility) and EAF dust consumption (for the Palmerton

facility) were estimated using historic values that were published in articles for select years (extrapolation techniques were used for years in which published data was not available). The Monaca, PA facility was assumed to have closed in 2003 and not operated since.

New data for the industry showed that there were emissive zinc-producing facilities not being captured by the previous Inventory methodology. The facilities that were not captured included three Horsehead Corp Waelz kiln facilities in Beaumont, TX; Calumet, IL; and Rockwood, TN as well as a Waelz kiln facility commissioned in 2008 in Millport, AL by Steel Dust Recycling LLC. Also, research showed that the Monaca, PA facility only closed temporarily in 2003 and has been operating every year since (the Monaca, PA facility produces refined zinc from intermediary zinc products produced at Horsehead's other facilities). The updated methodology utilizes EAF dust consumption values and secondary zinc production values released annually by the main secondary zinc producer in the United States (Horsehead Corp.), and also includes the previously overlooked secondary zinc producing facilities in the emission estimates.

As a result of the revised methodology, historical emission estimates decreased by an average of 11 percent between 1990 and 2002, while emission estimates increased by an average of 140 percent between 2003 and 2009. The significant changes in emission estimates for years 2005 through 2008 were largely driven by Horsehead Corp's Monaca, PA facility being captured in the emission calculations for these years.

4.18. Lead Production (IPCC Source Category 2C5)

Lead production in the United States consists of both primary and secondary processes—both of which emit CO₂ (Sjardin 2003). Primary lead production, in the form of direct smelting, occurs at a just a single plant in Missouri. Secondary production largely involves the recycling of lead acid batteries at approximately 21 separate smelters in the United States. Fifteen of those secondary smelters have annual capacities of 15,000 tons or more and were collectively responsible for 99 percent of secondary lead production in 2009 (USGS 2010). Secondary lead production has increased in the United States over the past decade while primary lead production has decreased. In 2009, secondary lead production accounted for approximately 92 percent of total lead production (USGS 2011).

Primary production of lead through the direct smelting of lead concentrate produces CO₂ emissions as the lead concentrates are reduced in a furnace using metallurgical coke (Sjardin 2003). U.S. primary lead production decreased by 24 percent from 2008 to 2009, and has decreased by 75 percent since 1990 (USGS 2011, USGS 1995).

Similar to primary lead production, CO₂ emissions from secondary production result when a reducing agent, usually metallurgical coke, is added to the smelter to aid in the reduction process. CO₂ emissions from secondary production also occur through the treatment of secondary raw materials (Sjardin 2003). U.S. secondary lead production decreased from 2008 to 2009 by 3 percent, and has increased by 20 percent since 1990 (USGS 2011, USGS 1995).

At last reporting, the United States was the third largest mine producer of lead in the world, behind China and Australia, accounting for 11 percent of world production in 2009 (USGS 2011). In 2009, U.S. primary and secondary lead production totaled 1,213,000 metric tons (USGS 2011). The resulting emissions of CO₂ from 2009 production were estimated to be 0.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (525 Gg) (see Table 4-78). The majority of 2009 lead production is from secondary processes, which accounted for 95 percent of total 2009 CO₂ emissions.

Table 4-78: CO₂ Emissions from Lead Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	0.5	516
2000	0.6	594
2005	0.6	553
2006	0.6	560
2007	0.6	562
2008	0.6	551
2009	0.5	525

After a gradual decrease in total emissions from 1990 to 1995, total emissions have gradually increased since 1995

and emissions in 2009 were two percent greater than in 1990. Although primary production has decreased significantly (75 percent since 1990), secondary production has increased by about 20 percent over the same time period. Since secondary production is more emissions-intensive, the increase in secondary production since 1990 has resulted in a net increase in emissions despite the sharp decrease in primary production (USGS 2011, USGS 1994).

Methodology

Non-energy CO₂ emissions from lead production result from primary and secondary production processes that use metallurgical coke or other C-based materials as reductants. For primary lead production using direct smelting, Sjardin (2003) and the IPCC (2006) provide an emission factor of 0.25 metric tons CO₂/metric ton lead. For secondary lead production, Sjardin (2003) and IPCC (2006) provide an emission factor of 0.25 metric tons CO₂/metric ton lead for direct smelting as well as an emission factor of 0.2 metric tons CO₂/metric ton lead produced for the treatment of secondary raw materials (i.e., pretreatment of lead acid batteries). The direct smelting factor (0.25) and the sum of the direct smelting and pretreatment emission factors (0.45) are multiplied by total U.S. primary and secondary lead production, respectively, to estimate CO₂ emissions.

The 1990 through 2009 activity data for primary and secondary lead production (see Table 4-79) were obtained through the USGS Mineral Yearbook: Lead (USGS 1994 through 2011).

Table 4-79: Lead Production (Metric Tons)

Year	Primary	Secondary
1990	404,000	922,000
2000	341,000	1,130,000
2005	143,000	1,150,000
2006	153,000	1,160,000
2007	123,000	1,180,000
2008	135,000	1,150,000
2009	103,000	1,110,000

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainty associated with lead production relates to the emission factors and activity data used. The direct smelting emission factor used in primary production is taken from Sjardin (2003) who averages the values provided by three other studies (Dutrizac et al. 2000, Morris et al. 1983, Ullman 1997). For secondary production, Sjardin (2003) adds a CO₂ emission factor associated with battery treatment. The applicability of these emission factors to plants in the United States is uncertain. There is also a smaller level of uncertainty associated with the accuracy of primary and secondary production data provided by the USGS.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-80. Lead production CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 0.5 and 0.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 14 percent below and 15 percent above the emission estimate of 0.5 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-80: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Lead Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Lead Production	CO ₂	0.5	0.5	0.6	-14%	+15%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

Future improvements to the lead production source category involve evaluating facility level greenhouse gas emissions data as a basis for improving emission calculations from lead production. Beginning in 2010, all U.S. lead producing facilities (primary and secondary) that emit over 25,000 tons of greenhouse gases (CO₂ Eq.) are required to monitor, calculate and report their greenhouse gas emissions to EPA through its Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program. Under the Program, EPA will obtain data for 2010 from these facilities based on use of higher tier methods and assess how this data could be used to improve the methodology and emissions factors for calculating emissions from the U.S. lead production industry.

Recalculations Discussion

In previous Inventory reports, CO₂ emissions from secondary lead production were estimated by multiplying secondary lead production values from USGS by an emission factor of 0.2 metric tons CO₂/metric ton lead produced. This emission factor is provided by Sjardin (2003) and IPCC (2006) for the treatment of secondary raw materials (i.e., pretreatment of lead acid batteries). Due to a misinterpretation of language in Sjardin (2003) and IPCC (2006), this was the only emission factor applied to secondary lead production even though an emission factor of 0.25 metric tons CO₂/metric ton lead for direct smelting should have been applied as well. This issue has been corrected for the current Inventory, and increased 1990 through 2008 emissions from lead production by an average of 95 percent per year relative to the previous Inventory.

4.19. HCFC-22 Production (IPCC Source Category 2E1)

Trifluoromethane (HFC-23 or CHF₃) is generated as a by-product during the manufacture of chlorodifluoromethane (HCFC-22), which is primarily employed in refrigeration and air conditioning systems and as a chemical feedstock for manufacturing synthetic polymers. Between 1990 and 2000, U.S. production of HCFC-22 increased significantly as HCFC-22 replaced chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) in many applications. Between 2000 and 2007, U.S. production fluctuated but generally remained above 1990 levels. In 2008 and 2009, U.S. production declined markedly. Because HCFC-22 depletes stratospheric ozone, its production for non-feedstock uses is scheduled to be phased out by 2020 under the U.S. Clean Air Act.¹¹⁷ Feedstock production, however, is permitted to continue indefinitely.

HCFC-22 is produced by the reaction of chloroform (CHCl₃) and hydrogen fluoride (HF) in the presence of a catalyst, SbCl₅. The reaction of the catalyst and HF produces SbCl_xF_y, (where x + y = 5), which reacts with chlorinated hydrocarbons to replace chlorine atoms with fluorine. The HF and chloroform are introduced by submerged piping into a continuous-flow reactor that contains the catalyst in a hydrocarbon mixture of chloroform and partially fluorinated intermediates. The vapors leaving the reactor contain HCFC-21 (CHCl₂F), HCFC-22 (CHClF₂), HFC-23 (CHF₃), HCl, chloroform, and HF. The under-fluorinated intermediates (HCFC-21) and chloroform are then condensed and returned to the reactor, along with residual catalyst, to undergo further fluorination. The final vapors leaving the condenser are primarily HCFC-22, HFC-23, HCl and residual HF. The HCl is recovered as a useful byproduct, and the HF is removed. Once separated from HCFC-22, the HFC-23 may be released to the atmosphere, recaptured for use in a limited number of applications, or destroyed.

Emissions of HFC-23 in 2009 were estimated to be 5.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.5 Gg) (Table 4-81). This quantity represents a 60 percent decrease from 2008 emissions and a 85 percent decline from 1990 emissions. The decrease from 2008 emissions was caused by a 27 percent decrease in HCFC-22 production and a 46 percent decrease in the HFC-23 emission rate. The decline from 1990 emissions is due to a 34 percent decrease in HCFC-22 production and a 78 percent decrease in the HFC-23 emission rate since 1990. The decrease in the emission rate is primarily attributable to five factors: (a) five plants that did not capture and destroy the HFC-23 generated have ceased production of HCFC-22 since 1990, (b) one plant that captures and destroys the HFC-23 generated began to produce HCFC-22, (c) one plant implemented and documented a process change that reduced the amount of HFC-23 generated, and (d) the same plant began recovering HFC-23, primarily for destruction and secondarily for sale, and (e) another plant began destroying HFC-23. All three HCFC-22 production plants operating in the United States in 2009 used thermal oxidation to significantly lower their HFC-23 emissions.

¹¹⁷ As construed, interpreted, and applied in the terms and conditions of the *Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer*. [42 U.S.C. §7671m(b), CAA §614]

Table 4-81: HFC-23 Emissions from HCFC-22 Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	36.4	3
2000	28.6	2
2005	15.8	1
2006	13.8	1
2007	17.0	1
2008	13.6	1
2009	5.4	0.46

Methodology

To estimate HFC-23 emissions for five of the eight HCFC-22 plants that have operated in the United States since 1990, methods comparable to the Tier 3 methods in the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006) were used. For the other three plants, the last of which closed in 1993, methods comparable to the Tier 1 method in the 2006 IPCC Guidelines were used. Emissions from these three plants have been calculated using the recommended emission factor for unoptimized plants operating before 1995 (0.04 kg HCFC-23/kg HCFC-22 produced).

The five plants that have operated since 1994 measured concentrations of HFC-23 to estimate their emissions of HFC-23. Plants using thermal oxidation to abate their HFC-23 emissions monitor the performance of their oxidizers to verify that the HFC-23 is almost completely destroyed. Plants that release (or historically have released) some of their byproduct HFC-23 periodically measure HFC-23 concentrations in the output stream using gas chromatography. This information is combined with information on quantities of products (e.g., HCFC-22) to estimate HFC-23 emissions.

In most years, including 2010, an industry association aggregates and reports to EPA country-level estimates of HCFC-22 production and HFC-23 emissions (ARAP 1997, 1999, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010). However, in 1997 and 2008, EPA (through a contractor) performed comprehensive reviews of plant-level estimates of HFC-23 emissions and HCFC-22 production (RTI 1997; RTI 2008). These reviews enabled EPA to review, update, and where necessary, correct U.S. totals, and also to perform plant-level uncertainty analyses (Monte-Carlo simulations) for 1990, 1995, 2000, 2005, and 2006. Estimates of annual U.S. HCFC-22 production are presented in Table 4-82.

Table 4-82: HCFC-22 Production (Gg)

Year	Gg
1990	139
2000	186
2005	156
2006	154
2007	162
2008	126
2009	91

Uncertainty and Time Series Consistency

The uncertainty analysis presented in this section was based on a plant-level Monte Carlo simulation for 2006. The Monte Carlo analysis used estimates of the uncertainties in the individual variables in each plant's estimating procedure. This analysis was based on the generation of 10,000 random samples of model inputs from the probability density functions for each input. A normal probability density function was assumed for all measurements and biases except the equipment leak estimates for one plant; a log-normal probability density function was used for this plant's equipment leak estimates. The simulation for 2006 yielded a 95-percent

confidence interval for U.S. emissions of 6.8 percent below to 9.6 percent above the reported total.

Because plant-level emissions data for 2009 were not available, the relative errors yielded by the Monte Carlo simulation for 2006 were applied to the U.S. emission estimate for 2009. The resulting estimates of absolute uncertainty are likely to be accurate because (1) the methods used by the three plants to estimate their emissions are not believed to have changed significantly since 2006, and (2) although the distribution of emissions among the plants may have changed between 2008 and 2009 (because both HCFC-22 production and the HFC-23 emission rate declined significantly), the two plants that contribute significantly to emissions were estimated to have similar relative uncertainties in their 2006 (as well as 2005) emission estimates. Thus, changes in the relative contributions of these two plants to total emissions are not likely to have a large impact on the uncertainty of the national emission estimate.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-83. HFC-23 emissions from HCFC-22 production were estimated to be between 5.0 and 5.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 7 percent below and 10 percent above the emission estimate of 5.4 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-83: Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for HFC-23 Emissions from HCFC-22 Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)			
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound (%)	Upper Bound (%)
HCFC-22 Production	HFC-23	5.4	5.0	5.9	-7%	+10%

^a Range of emissions reflects a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

Beginning in 2010, all U.S. HCFC-22 production facilities are required to calculate and report their greenhouse gas emissions to EPA through its Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program. Data collected under this program will be used in future inventories to improve the calculation of national emissions from HCFC-22 production

4.20. Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances (IPCC Source Category 2F)

Hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs) and perfluorocarbons (PFCs) are used as alternatives to several classes of ozone-depleting substances (ODSs) that are being phased out under the terms of the Montreal Protocol and the Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990.¹¹⁸ Ozone depleting substances—chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), halons, carbon tetrachloride, methyl chloroform, and hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs)—are used in a variety of industrial applications including refrigeration and air conditioning equipment, solvent cleaning, foam production, sterilization, fire extinguishing, and aerosols. Although HFCs and PFCs are not harmful to the stratospheric ozone layer, they are potent greenhouse gases. Emission estimates for HFCs and PFCs used as substitutes for ODSs are provided in Table 4-84 and Table 4-85.

Table 4-84: Emissions of HFCs and PFCs from ODS Substitutes (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
HFC-23	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
HFC-32	+	+	0.3	0.6	1.0	1.3	1.7
HFC-125	+	5.2	10.1	12.5	15.1	18.2	21.6
HFC-134a	+	60.4	75.1	75.0	72.3	69.3	66.7
HFC-143a	+	4.1	12.2	14.4	16.7	19.2	22.0
HFC-236fa	+	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9

¹¹⁸ [42 U.S.C § 7671, CAA § 601]

CF ₄	+		+		+	+	+	+	+
Others*	0.3		4.0		5.6	6.0	6.3	6.7	7.0
Total	0.3		74.3		104.2	109.4	112.3	115.5	120.0

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

* Others include HFC-152a, HFC-227ea, HFC-245fa, HFC-4310mee, C₄F₁₀, and PFC/PFPEs, the latter being a proxy for a diverse collection of PFCs and perfluoropolyethers (PFPEs) employed for solvent applications. For estimating purposes, the GWP value used for PFC/PFPEs was based upon C₆F₁₄.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 4-85: Emissions of HFCs and PFCs from ODS Substitution (Mg)

Gas	1990		2000		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
HFC-23	+		1		1	1	1	2	2
HFC-32	+		26		505	971	1,465	1,977	2,540
HFC-125	+		1,855		3,619	4,453	5,393	6,486	7,730
HFC-134a	+		46,465		57,777	57,728	55,603	53,294	51,281
HFC-143a	+		1,089		3,200	3,782	4,402	5,044	5,798
HFC-236fa	+		85		125	131	136	141	144
CF ₄	+		1		2	2	2	2	2
Others*	M		M		M	M	M	M	M

M (Mixture of Gases)

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Mg

* Others include HFC-152a, HFC-227ea, HFC-245fa, HFC-4310mee, C₄F₁₀, and PFC/PFPEs, the latter being a proxy for a

Refrigeration/Air Conditioning

The refrigeration and air-conditioning sector includes a wide variety of equipment types that have historically used CFCs or HCFCs. End-uses within this sector include motor vehicle air-conditioning, retail food refrigeration, refrigerated transport (e.g., ship holds, truck trailers, railway freight cars), household refrigeration, residential and small commercial air-conditioning/and heat pumps, chillers (large comfort cooling), cold storage facilities, and industrial process refrigeration (e.g., systems used in food processing, chemical, petrochemical, pharmaceutical, oil and gas, and metallurgical industries). As the ODS phaseout is taking effect, most equipment is being or will eventually be retrofitted or replaced to use HFC-based substitutes. Common HFCs in use today in refrigeration/air-conditioning equipment are HFC-134a, R-410A¹²⁰, R-404A, and R-507A¹²¹. These HFCs are emitted to the atmosphere during equipment manufacture and operation (as a result of component failure, leaks, and purges), as well as at servicing and disposal events.

Aerosols

Aerosol propellants are used in metered dose inhalers (MDIs) and a variety of personal care products and technical/specialty products (e.g., duster sprays and safety horns). Many pharmaceutical companies that produce MDIs—a type of inhaled therapy used to treat asthma and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease—have committed to replace the use of CFCs with HFC-propellant alternatives. The earliest ozone-friendly MDIs were produced with HFC-134a, but the industry has started to use HFC-227ea as well. Conversely, since the use of CFC propellants was banned in 1978, most consumer aerosol products have not transitioned to HFCs, but to “not-in-kind” technologies, such as solid roll-on deodorants and finger-pump sprays. The transition away from ODS in specialty aerosol products has also led to the introduction of non-fluorocarbon alternatives (e.g., hydrocarbon propellants) in certain applications, in addition to HFC-134a or HFC-152a. These propellants are released into the atmosphere as the aerosol products are used.

Foams

CFCs and HCFCs have traditionally been used as foam blowing agents to produce polyurethane (PU), polystyrene, polyolefin, and phenolic foams, which are used in a wide variety of products and applications. Since the Montreal Protocol, flexible PU foams as well as other types of foam, such as polystyrene sheet, polyolefin, and phenolic foam, have transitioned almost completely away from fluorocompounds, into alternatives such as CO₂, methylene chloride, and hydrocarbons. The majority of rigid PU foams have transitioned to HFCs—primarily HFC-134a and HFC-245fa. Today, these HFCs are used to produce polyurethane appliance, PU commercial refrigeration, PU spray, and PU panel foams—used in refrigerators, vending machines, roofing, wall insulation, garage doors, and cold storage applications. In addition, HFC-152a is used to produce polystyrene sheet/board foam, which is used in food packaging and building insulation. Emissions of blowing agents occur when the foam is manufactured as well as during the foam lifetime and at foam disposal, depending on the particular foam type.

Solvents

CFCs, methyl chloroform (1,1,1-trichloroethane or TCA), and to a lesser extent carbon tetrachloride (CCl₄) were historically used as solvents in a wide range of cleaning applications, including precision, electronics, and metal cleaning. Since their phaseout, metal cleaning end-use applications have primarily transitioned to non-fluorocarbon solvents and not-in-kind processes. The precision and electronics cleaning end-uses have transitioned in part to high-GWP gases, due to their high reliability, excellent compatibility, good stability, low toxicity, and selective solvency. These applications rely on HFC-4310mee, HFC-365mfc, HFC-245fa, and to a lesser extent, PFCs. Electronics cleaning involves removing flux residue that remains after a soldering operation for printed circuit boards and other contamination-sensitive electronics applications. Precision cleaning may apply to either electronic components or to metal surfaces, and is characterized by products, such as disk drives, gyroscopes, and optical components, that require a high level of cleanliness and generally have complex shapes, small clearances, and other cleaning

¹²⁰ R-410A contains HFC-32 and HFC-125.

¹²¹ R-507A, also called R-507, contains HFC-125 and HFC-143a.

challenges. The use of solvents yields fugitive emissions of these HFCs and PFCs.

Fire Protection

Fire protection applications include portable fire extinguishers (“streaming” applications) that originally used halon 1211, and total flooding applications that originally used halon 1301, as well as some halon 2402. Since the production and sale of halons were banned in the United States in 1994, the halon replacement agent of choice in the streaming sector has been dry chemical, although HFC-236ea is also used to a limited extent. In the total flooding sector, HFC-227ea has emerged as the primary replacement for halon 1301 in applications that require clean agents. Other HFCs, such as HFC-23, HFC-236fa, and HFC-125, are used in smaller amounts. The majority of HFC-227ea in total flooding systems is used to protect essential electronics, as well as in civil aviation, military mobile weapons systems, oil/gas/other process industries, and merchant shipping. As fire protection equipment is tested or deployed, emissions of these HFCs occur.

Methodology

A detailed Vintaging Model of ODS-containing equipment and products was used to estimate the actual—versus potential—emissions of various ODS substitutes, including HFCs and PFCs. The name of the model refers to the fact that it tracks the use and emissions of various compounds for the annual “vintages” of new equipment that enter service in each end-use. The Vintaging Model predicts ODS and ODS substitute use in the United States based on modeled estimates of the quantity of equipment or products sold each year containing these chemicals and the amount of the chemical required to manufacture and/or maintain equipment and products over time. Emissions for each end-use were estimated by applying annual leak rates and release profiles, which account for the lag in emissions from equipment as they leak over time. By aggregating the data for nearly 60 different end-uses, the model produces estimates of annual use and emissions of each compound. Further information on the Vintaging Model is contained in Annex 3.8.

Uncertainty

Given that emissions of ODS substitutes occur from thousands of different kinds of equipment and from millions of point and mobile sources throughout the United States, emission estimates must be made using analytical tools such as the Vintaging Model or the methods outlined in IPCC (2006). Though the model is more comprehensive than the IPCC default methodology, significant uncertainties still exist with regard to the levels of equipment sales, equipment characteristics, and end-use emissions profiles that were used to estimate annual emissions for the various compounds.

The Vintaging Model estimates emissions from nearly 60 end-uses. The uncertainty analysis, however, quantifies the level of uncertainty associated with the aggregate emissions resulting from the top 21 end-uses, comprising over 95 percent of the total emissions, and 5 other end-uses. These 26 end-uses comprise 97 percent of the total emissions. In an effort to improve the uncertainty analysis, additional end-uses are added annually, with the intention that over time uncertainty for all emissions from the Vintaging Model will be fully characterized. Any end-uses included in previous years’ uncertainty analysis were included in the current uncertainty analysis, whether or not those end-uses were included in the top 95 percent of emissions from ODS Substitutes.

In order to calculate uncertainty, functional forms were developed to simplify some of the complex “vintaging” aspects of some end-use sectors, especially with respect to refrigeration and air-conditioning, and to a lesser degree, fire extinguishing. These sectors calculate emissions based on the entire lifetime of equipment, not just equipment put into commission in the current year, thereby necessitating simplifying equations. The functional forms used variables that included growth rates, emission factors, transition from ODSs, change in charge size as a result of the transition, disposal quantities, disposal emission rates, and either stock for the current year or original ODS consumption. Uncertainty was estimated around each variable within the functional forms based on expert judgment, and a Monte Carlo analysis was performed. The most significant sources of uncertainty for this source category include the emission factors for retail food equipment and refrigerated transport, as well as the percent of non-MDI aerosol propellant that is HFC-152a.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-87. Substitution of ozone depleting substances HFC and PFC emissions were estimated to be between 111.8 and 129.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 7 percent below to 8 percent above the emission

estimate of 120.0 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-87: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for HFC and PFC Emissions from ODS Substitutes (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gases	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.) ^a	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^b			
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	HFCs and PFCs	117.1	109.0	126.5	-7%	+8%

^a 2009 emission estimates and the uncertainty range presented in this table correspond to selected end-uses within the aerosols, foams, solvents, fire extinguishing agents, and refrigerants sectors, but not for other remaining categories. Therefore, because the uncertainty associated with emissions from “other” ODS substitutes was not estimated, they were excluded in the estimates reported in this table.

^b Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Recalculations Discussion

An extensive review of the MDI aerosol, unitary air-conditioning, and domestic refrigerator foams markets resulted in revisions to the Vintaging Model since the previous Inventory. For MDI aerosols, the charge size for both the CFC and HFC propellants was revised. Based on research on substitutes and growth in the market, the percent of the CFC market that transitions to HFCs over the time series and the overall size of the MDI market decreased. For unitary air-conditioning, a review of air conditioner sales data reduced the quantity of air-conditioning equipment introduced into the market for 1990 through 1993 and 2008, while increasing the quantity of equipment sold into the market for 1994 through 2009. A review of the domestic refrigerator foams market increased the quantity of blowing agent consumed in the foam and decreased the quantity of blowing agent emitted during the foam manufacturing process. Overall, these changes to the Vintaging Model increased greenhouse gas emissions on average by 0.5 percent across the time series.

4.21. Semiconductor Manufacture (IPCC Source Category 2F6)

The semiconductor industry uses multiple long-lived fluorinated gases in plasma etching and plasma enhanced chemical vapor deposition (PECVD) processes to produce semiconductor products. The gases most commonly employed are trifluoromethane (HFC-23 or CHF₃), perfluoromethane (CF₄), perfluoroethane (C₂F₆), nitrogen trifluoride (NF₃), and sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆), although other compounds such as perfluoropropane (C₃F₈) and perfluorocyclobutane (c-C₄F₈) are also used. The exact combination of compounds is specific to the process employed.

A single 300 mm silicon wafer that yields between 400 to 500 semiconductor products (devices or chips) may require as many as 100 distinct fluorinated-gas-using process steps, principally to deposit and pattern dielectric films. Plasma etching (or patterning) of dielectric films, such as silicon dioxide and silicon nitride, is performed to provide pathways for conducting material to connect individual circuit components in each device. The patterning process uses plasma-generated fluorine atoms, which chemically react with exposed dielectric film to selectively remove the desired portions of the film. The material removed as well as undissociated fluorinated gases flow into waste streams and, unless emission abatement systems are employed, into the atmosphere. PECVD chambers, used for depositing dielectric films, are cleaned periodically using fluorinated and other gases. During the cleaning cycle the gas is converted to fluorine atoms in plasma, which etches away residual material from chamber walls, electrodes, and chamber hardware. Undissociated fluorinated gases and other products pass from the chamber to waste streams and, unless abatement systems are employed, into the atmosphere. In addition to emissions of unreacted gases, some fluorinated compounds can also be transformed in the plasma processes into different fluorinated compounds which are then exhausted, unless abated, into the atmosphere. For example, when C₂F₆ is used in cleaning or etching, CF₄ is generated and emitted as a process by-product. Besides dielectric film etching and PECVD chamber cleaning, much smaller quantities of fluorinated gases are used to etch polysilicon films and

refractory metal films like tungsten.

For 2009, total weighted emissions of all fluorinated greenhouse gases by the U.S. semiconductor industry were estimated to be 5.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. Combined emissions of all fluorinated greenhouse gases are presented in Table 4-88 and Table 4-89 below for years 1990, 2000 and the period 2005 to 2009. The rapid growth of this industry and the increasing complexity (growing number of layers)¹²² of semiconductor products led to an increase in emissions of 148 percent between 1990 and 1999, when emissions peaked at 7.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. The emissions growth rate began to slow after 1998, and emissions declined by 26 percent between 1999 and 2009. Together, industrial growth and adoption of emissions reduction technologies, including but not limited to abatement technologies, resulted in a net increase in emissions of 83 percent between 1990 and 2009.

Table 4-88: PFC, HFC, and SF₆ Emissions from Semiconductor Manufacture (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Year	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CF ₄	0.7	1.8	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5
C ₂ F ₆	1.5	3.0	2.0	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.5
C ₃ F ₈	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0
C ₄ F ₈	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0
HFC-23	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
SF ₆	0.5	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.9	1.0
NF ₃ *	0.0	0.2	0.4	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.5
Total	2.9	6.2	4.4	4.7	4.8	5.1	5.3

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

* NF₃ emissions are presented for informational purposes, using the AR4 GWP of 17,200, and are not included in totals.

Table 4-89: PFC, HFC, and SF₆ Emissions from Semiconductor Manufacture (Mg)

Year	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CF ₄	115	281	168	181	198	216	227
C ₂ F ₆	160	321	216	240	249	261	271
C ₃ F ₈	0	18	5	5	6	13	5
C ₄ F ₈	0	0	13	13	7	7	4
HFC-23	15	23	18	22	23	25	28
SF ₆	22	45	40	40	34	36	40
NF ₃	3	11	26	40	30	33	30

Methodology

Emissions are based on Partner reported emissions data received through the EPA's PFC Reduction/Climate Partnership and the EPA's PFC Emissions Vintage Model (PEVM), a model which estimates industry emissions in the absence of emission control strategies (Burton and Beizaie 2001).¹²³ The availability and applicability of Partner data differs across the 1990 through 2009 time series. Consequently, emissions from semiconductor manufacturing were estimated using four distinct methods, one each for the periods 1990 through 1994, 1995 through 1999, 2000 through 2006, and 2007 through 2009.

1990 through 1994

From 1990 through 1994, Partnership data was unavailable and emissions were modeled using the PEVM (Burton

¹²² Complexity is a term denoting the circuit required to connect the active circuit elements (transistors) on a chip. Increasing miniaturization, for the same chip size, leads to increasing transistor density, which, in turn, requires more complex interconnections between those transistors. This increasing complexity is manifested by increasing the levels (i.e., layers) of wiring, with each wiring layer requiring fluorinated gas usage for its manufacture.

¹²³ A Partner refers to a participant in the U.S. EPA PFC Reduction/Climate Partnership for the Semiconductor Industry. Through a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) with the EPA, Partners voluntarily report their PFC emissions to the EPA by way of a third party, which aggregates the emissions.

and Beizaie 2001).¹²⁴ 1990 to 1994 emissions are assumed to be uncontrolled, since reduction strategies such as chemical substitution and abatement were yet to be developed.

PEVM is based on the recognition that PFC emissions from semiconductor manufacturing vary with: (1) the number of layers that comprise different kinds of semiconductor devices, including both silicon wafer and metal interconnect layers, and (2) silicon consumption (i.e., the area of semiconductors produced) for each kind of device. The product of these two quantities, Total Manufactured Layer Area (TMLA), constitutes the activity data for semiconductor manufacturing. PEVM also incorporates an emission factor that expresses emissions per unit of layer-area. Emissions are estimated by multiplying TMLA by this emission factor.

PEVM incorporates information on the two attributes of semiconductor devices that affect the number of layers: (1) linewidth technology (the smallest manufactured feature size),¹²⁵ and (2) product type (discrete, memory or logic).¹²⁶ For each linewidth technology, a weighted average number of layers is estimated using VLSI product-specific worldwide silicon demand data in conjunction with complexity factors (i.e., the number of layers per Integrated Circuit (IC)) specific to product type (Burton and Beizaie 2001, ITRS 2007). PEVM derives historical consumption of silicon (i.e., square inches) by linewidth technology from published data on annual wafer starts and average wafer size (VLSI Research, Inc. 2010).

The emission factor in PEVM is the average of four historical emission factors, each derived by dividing the total annual emissions reported by the Partners for each of the four years between 1996 and 1999 by the total TMLA estimated for the Partners in each of those years. Over this period, the emission factors varied relatively little (i.e., the relative standard deviation for the average was 5 percent). Since Partners are believed not to have applied significant emission reduction measures before 2000, the resulting average emission factor reflects uncontrolled emissions. The emission factor is used to estimate world uncontrolled emissions using publicly available data on world silicon consumption.

1995 through 1999

For 1995 through 1999, total U.S. emissions were extrapolated from the total annual emissions reported by the Partners (1995 through 1999). Partner-reported emissions are considered more representative (e.g., in terms of capacity utilization in a given year) than PEVM estimated emissions, and are used to generate total U.S. emissions when applicable. The emissions reported by the Partners were divided by the ratio of the total capacity of the plants operated by the Partners and the total capacity of all of the semiconductor plants in the United States; this ratio represents the share of capacity attributable to the Partnership. This method assumes that Partners and non-Partners have identical capacity utilizations and distributions of manufacturing technologies. Plant capacity data is contained in the World Fab Forecast (WFF) database and its predecessors, which is updated quarterly (Semiconductor Equipment and Materials Industry 2010).

2000 through 2006

The emission estimate for the years 2000 through 2006—the period during which Partners began the consequential application of PFC-reduction measures—was estimated using a combination of Partner reported emissions and PEVM modeled emissions. The emissions reported by Partners for each year were accepted as the quantity emitted from the share of the industry represented by those Partners. Remaining emissions, those from non-Partners, were

¹²⁴ Various versions of the PEVM exist to reflect changing industrial practices. From 1990 to 1994 emissions estimates are from PEVM v1.0, completed in September 1998. The emission factor used to estimate 1990 to 1994 emissions is an average of the 1995 and 1996 emissions factors, which were derived from Partner reported data for those years.

¹²⁵ By decreasing features of Integrated Circuit components, more components can be manufactured per device, which increases its functionality. However, as those individual components shrink it requires more layers to interconnect them to achieve the functionality. For example, a microprocessor manufactured with the smallest feature sizes (65 nm) might contain as many as 1 billion transistors and require as many as 11 layers of component interconnects to achieve functionality while a device manufactured with 130 nm feature size might contain a few hundred million transistors and require 8 layers of component interconnects (ITRS 2007).

¹²⁶ Memory devices manufactured with the same feature sizes as microprocessors (a logic device) require approximately one-half the number of interconnect layers, whereas discrete devices require only a silicon base layer and no interconnect layers (ITRS 2007). Since discrete devices did not start using PFCs appreciably until 2004, they are only accounted for in the PEVM emissions estimates from 2004 onwards.

estimated using PEVM and the method described above. This is because non-Partners are assumed not to have implemented any PFC-reduction measures, and PEVM models emissions without such measures. The portion of the U.S. total attributed to non-Partners is obtained by multiplying PEVM's total U.S. emissions figure by the non-Partner share of U. S. total silicon capacity for each year as described above.¹²⁷⁻¹²⁸ Annual updates to PEVM reflect published figures for actual silicon consumption from VLSI Research, Inc., revisions and additions to the world population of semiconductor manufacturing plants, and changes in IC fabrication practices within the semiconductor industry (see ITRS 2007 and Semiconductor Equipment and Materials Industry 2010).¹²⁹⁻¹³⁰⁻¹³¹

2007 through 2009

For the years 2007 through 2009, emissions were also estimated using a combination of Partner reported emissions and PEVM modeled emissions; however, two improvements were made to the estimation method employed for the previous years in the time series. First, the 2007 through 2009 emission estimates account for the fact that Partners and non-Partners employ different distributions of manufacturing technologies, with the Partners using manufacturing technologies with greater transistor densities and therefore greater numbers of layers.¹³² Second, the scope of the 2007 through 2009 estimates is expanded relative to the estimates for the years 2000 through 2006 to include emissions from Research and Development (R&D) fabs. This was feasible through the use of more detailed data published in the World Fab Forecast. PEVM databases are updated annually as described above. The published world average capacity utilization for 2007 and 2008 was used for production fabs while in 2008 for R&D fabs a 20 percent figure was assumed (SIA 2009).

In addition, publicly available actual utilization data was used to account for differences in fab utilization for manufacturers of discrete and IC products for the emissions in 2009 for non-partners. PEVM estimates were adjusted using technology weighted capacity shares that reflect relative influence of different utilization.

¹²⁷ This approach assumes that the distribution of linewidth technologies is the same between Partners and non-Partners. As discussed in the description of the method used to estimate 2007 emissions, this is not always the case.

¹²⁸ Generally 5 percent or less of the fields needed to estimate TMLA shares are missing values in the World Fab Watch databases. In the 2007 World Fab Watch database used to generate the 2006 non-Partner TMLA capacity share, these missing values were replaced with the corresponding mean TMLA across fabs manufacturing similar classes of products. However, the impact of replacing missing values on the non-Partner TMLA capacity share was inconsequential.

¹²⁹ Special attention was given to the manufacturing capacity of plants that use wafers with 300 mm diameters because the actual capacity of these plants is ramped up to design capacity, typically over a 2–3 year period. To prevent overstating estimates of partner-capacity shares from plants using 300 mm wafers, *design* capacities contained in WFW were replaced with estimates of *actual installed* capacities for 2004 published by Citigroup Smith Barney (2005). Without this correction, the partner share of capacity would be overstated, by approximately 5 percent. For perspective, approximately 95 percent of all new capacity additions in 2004 used 300 mm wafers, and by year-end those plants, on average, could operate at approximately 70 percent of the design capacity. For 2005, actual installed capacities were estimated using an entry in the World Fab Watch database (April 2006 Edition) called “wafers/month, 8-inch equivalent,” which denoted the actual installed capacity instead of the fully-ramped capacity. For 2006, actual installed capacities of new fabs were estimated using an average monthly ramp rate of 1100 wafer starts per month (wspm) derived from various sources such as semiconductor fabtech, industry analysts, and articles in the trade press. The monthly ramp rate was applied from the first-quarter of silicon volume (QSV) to determine the average design capacity over the 2006 period.

¹³⁰ In 2006, the industry trend in co-ownership of manufacturing facilities continued. Several manufacturers, who are Partners, now operate fabs with other manufacturers, who in some cases are also Partners and in other cases are not Partners. Special attention was given to this occurrence when estimating the Partner and non-Partner shares of U.S. manufacturing capacity.

¹³¹ Two versions of PEVM are used to model non-Partner emissions during this period. For the years 2000 to 2003 PEVM v3.2.0506.0507 was used to estimate non-Partner emissions. During this time, discrete devices did not use PFCs during manufacturing and therefore only memory and logic devices were modeled in the PEVM v3.2.0506.0507. From 2004 onwards, discrete device fabrication started to use PFCs, hence PEVM v4.0.0701.0701, the first version of PEVM to account for PFC emissions from discrete devices, was used to estimate non-Partner emissions for this time period.

¹³² EPA considered applying this change to years before 2007, but found that it would be difficult due to the large amount of data (i.e., technology-specific global and non-Partner TMLA) that would have to be examined and manipulated for each year. This effort did not appear to be justified given the relatively small impact of the improvement on the total estimate for 2007 and the fact that the impact of the improvement would likely be lower for earlier years because the estimated share of emissions accounted for by non-Partners is growing as Partners continue to implement emission-reduction efforts.

Gas-Specific Emissions

Two different approaches were also used to estimate the distribution of emissions of specific fluorinated gases. Before 1999, when there was no consequential adoption of fluorinated-gas-reducing measures, a fixed distribution of fluorinated-gas use was assumed to apply to the entire U.S. industry. This distribution was based upon the average fluorinated-gas purchases made by semiconductor manufacturers during this period and the application of IPCC default emission factors for each gas (Burton and Beizaie 2001). For the 2000 through 2009 period, the 1990 through 1999 distribution was assumed to apply to the non-Partners. Partners, however, began reporting gas-specific emissions during this period. Thus, gas-specific emissions for 2000 through 2009 were estimated by adding the emissions reported by the Partners to those estimated for the non-Partners.

Data Sources

Partners estimate their emissions using a range of methods. For 2009, it is assumed that most Partners used a method at least as accurate as the IPCC's Tier 2a Methodology, recommended in the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Inventories (IPCC 2006). Data used to develop emission estimates are attributed in part to estimates provided by the members of the Partnership, and in part from data obtained from PEVM estimates. Estimates of operating plant capacities and characteristics for Partners and non-Partners were derived from the Semiconductor Equipment and Materials Industry (SEMI) World Fab Forecast (formerly World Fab Watch) database (1996 through 2009) (e.g., Semiconductor Materials and Equipment Industry, 2010). Actual world capacity utilizations for 2009 were obtained from Semiconductor International Capacity Statistics (SICAS) (SIA, 2009). Estimates of silicon consumed by linewidth from 1990 through 2009 were derived from information from VLSI Research, Inc. (2010), and the number of layers per linewidth was obtained from International Technology Roadmap for Semiconductors: 2006 Update (Burton and Beizaie 2001, ITRS 2007, ITRS 2008).

Uncertainty and Time Series Consistency

A quantitative uncertainty analysis of this source category was performed using the IPCC-recommended Tier 2 uncertainty estimation methodology, the Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation technique. The equation used to estimate uncertainty is:

$$\text{U.S. emissions} = \sum \text{Partnership gas-specific submittals} + [(\text{non-Partner share of World TMLA}) \times (\text{PEVM Emission Factor} \times \text{World TMLA})]$$

The Monte Carlo analysis results presented below relied on estimates of uncertainty attributed to the four quantities on the right side of the equation. Estimates of uncertainty for the four quantities were in turn developed using the estimated uncertainties associated with the individual inputs to each quantity, error propagation analysis, Monte Carlo simulation, and expert judgment. The relative uncertainty associated with World TMLA estimate in 2009 is about ± 10 percent, based on the uncertainty estimate obtained from discussions with VLSI, Inc. For the share of World layer-weighted silicon capacity accounted for by non-Partners, a relative uncertainty of ± 8 percent was estimated based on a separate Monte Carlo simulation to account for the random occurrence of missing data in the World Fab Watch database. For the aggregate PFC emissions data supplied to the partnership, a relative uncertainty of ± 50 percent was estimated for each gas-specific PFC emissions value reported by an individual Partner, and error propagation techniques were used to estimate uncertainty for total Partnership gas-specific submittals.¹³³ A relative uncertainty of approximately ± 10 percent was estimated for the PEVM emission factor, based on the standard deviation of the 1996 to 1999 emission factors.¹³⁴ All estimates of uncertainties are given at 95-percent confidence intervals.

In developing estimates of uncertainty, consideration was also given to the nature and magnitude of the potential bias that World activity data (i.e., World TMLA) might have in its estimates of the number of layers associated with devices manufactured at each technology node. The result of a brief analysis indicated that U.S. TMLA overstates the average number of layers across all product categories and all manufacturing technologies for 2004 by 0.12 layers or 2.9 percent. The same upward bias is assumed for World TMLA, and is represented in the uncertainty analysis by deducting the absolute bias value from the World activity estimate when it is incorporated into the

¹³³ Error propagation resulted in Partnership gas-specific uncertainties ranging from 17 to 27 percent

¹³⁴ The average of 1996 to 1999 emission factor is used to derive the PEVM emission factor.

Monte Carlo analysis.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-90. The emissions estimate for total U.S. PFC emissions from semiconductor manufacturing were estimated to be between 4.8 and 5.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This range represents 10 percent below to 11 percent above the 2009 emission estimate of 5.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. This range and the associated percentages apply to the estimate of total emissions rather than those of individual gases. Uncertainties associated with individual gases will be somewhat higher than the aggregate, but were not explicitly modeled.

Table 4-90: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for HFC, PFC, and SF₆ Emissions from Semiconductor Manufacture (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate ^a (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^b			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound ^c	Upper Bound ^c	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Semiconductor Manufacture	HFC, PFC, and SF ₆	5.3	4.8	5.9	-10%	+11%

^a Because the uncertainty analysis covered all emissions (including NF₃), the emission estimate presented here does not match that shown in Table 4-88.

^b Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

^c Absolute lower and upper bounds were calculated using the corresponding lower and upper bounds in percentages.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

With the exception of possible future updates to emission factors, the method to estimate non-Partner related emissions (i.e., PEVM) is not expected to change. Future improvements to the national emission estimates will primarily be associated with determining the portion of national emissions to attribute to Partner report totals (about 80 percent in recent years) and improvements in estimates of non-Partner totals. As the nature of the Partner reports change through time and industry-wide reduction efforts increase, consideration will be given to what emission reduction efforts—if any—are likely to be occurring at non-Partner facilities. Currently, none are assumed to occur.

Another point of consideration for future national emissions estimates is the inclusion of PFC emissions from heat transfer fluid (HTF) loss to the atmosphere and the production of photovoltaic cells (PVs). Heat transfer fluids, of which some are liquid perfluorinated compounds, are used during testing of semiconductor devices and, increasingly, are used to manage heat during the manufacture of semiconductor devices. Evaporation of these fluids is a source of emissions (EPA 2006). PFCs are also used during manufacture of PV cells that use silicon technology, specifically, crystalline, polycrystalline, and amorphous silicon technologies. PV manufacture is growing in the United States, and therefore may be expected to constitute a growing share of U.S. PFC emissions from the electronics sector.

4.22. Electrical Transmission and Distribution (IPCC Source Category 2F7)

The largest use of SF₆, both in the United States and internationally, is as an electrical insulator and interrupter in equipment that transmits and distributes electricity (RAND 2004). The gas has been employed by the electric power industry in the United States since the 1950s because of its dielectric strength and arc-quenching characteristics. It is used in gas-insulated substations, circuit breakers, and other switchgear. Sulfur hexafluoride has replaced flammable insulating oils in many applications and allows for more compact substations in dense urban areas.

Fugitive emissions of SF₆ can escape from gas-insulated substations and switchgear through seals, especially from older equipment. The gas can also be released during equipment manufacturing, installation, servicing, and disposal. Emissions of SF₆ from equipment manufacturing and from electrical transmission and distribution systems were estimated to be 12.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.5 Gg) in 2009. This quantity represents a 55 percent decrease from the estimate for 1990 (see Table 4-91 and Table 4-92). This decrease is believed to have two causes: a sharp increase in the price of SF₆ during the 1990s and a growing awareness of the environmental impact of SF₆ emissions through

programs such as EPA's SF₆ Emission Reduction Partnership for Electric Power Systems.

Table 4-91: SF₆ Emissions from Electric Power Systems and Electrical Equipment Manufacturers (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Year	Electric Power Systems	Electrical Equipment Manufacturers	Total
1990	28.1	0.3	28.4
2000	15.4	0.7	16.0
2005	14.1	1.1	15.1
2006	13.1	1.0	14.1
2007	12.4	0.8	13.2
2008	12.1	1.3	13.3
2009	12.1	0.7	12.8

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 4-92: SF₆ Emissions from Electric Power Systems and Electrical Equipment Manufacturers (Gg)

Year	Emissions
1990	1.2
2000	0.7
2005	0.6
2006	0.6
2007	0.6
2008	0.6
2009	0.5

Methodology

The estimates of emissions from Electric Transmission and Distribution are comprised of emissions from electric power systems and emissions from the manufacture of electrical equipment. The methodologies for estimating both sets of emissions are described below.

1999 through 2009 Emissions from Electric Power Systems

Emissions from electric power systems from 1999 to 2009 were estimated based on: (1) reporting from utilities participating in EPA's SF₆ Emission Reduction Partnership for Electric Power Systems (Partners), which began in 1999; and, (2) the relationship between emissions and utilities' transmission miles as reported in the 2001, 2004, 2007, and 2010 Utility Data Institute (UDI) Directories of Electric Power Producers and Distributors (UDI 2001, 2004, 2007, 2010). (Transmission miles are defined as the miles of lines carrying voltages above 34.5 kV.) Over the period from 1999 to 2009, Partner utilities, which for inventory purposes are defined as utilities that either currently are or previously have been part of the Partnership, represented between 42 percent and 47 percent of total U.S. transmission miles. For each year, the emissions reported by or estimated for Partner utilities were added to the emissions estimated for utilities that have never participated in the Partnership (i.e., non-Partners).¹³⁵

Partner utilities estimated their emissions using a Tier 3 utility-level mass balance approach (IPCC 2006). If a Partner utility did not provide data for a particular year, emissions were interpolated between years for which data were available or extrapolated based on Partner-specific transmission mile growth rates. In 2009, non-reporting Partners accounted for approximately 8 percent of the total emissions attributed to Partner utilities.

Emissions from non-Partners in every year since 1999 were estimated using the results of a regression analysis that showed that the emissions from reporting utilities were most strongly correlated with their transmission miles. The results of this analysis are not surprising given that, in the United States, SF₆ is contained primarily in transmission

¹³⁵ Partners in EPA's SF₆ Emission Reduction Partnership reduced their emissions by approximately 61% from 1999 to 2008.

equipment rated above 34.5 kV. The equations were developed based on the 1999 SF₆ emissions reported by a subset of 42 Partner utilities (representing approximately 23 percent of U.S. transmission miles) and 2000 transmission mileage data obtained from the 2001 UDI Directory of Electric Power Producers and Distributors (UDI 2001). Two equations were developed, one for small and one for large utilities (i.e., with fewer or more than 10,000 transmission miles, respectively). The distinction between utility sizes was made because the regression analysis showed that the relationship between emissions and transmission miles differed for small and large transmission networks. The same equations were used to estimate non-Partner emissions in 1999 and every year thereafter because non-Partners were assumed not to have implemented any changes that would have resulted in reduced emissions since 1999.

The regression equations are:

Non-Partner small utilities (fewer than 10,000 transmission miles, in kilograms):

$$\text{Emissions (kg)} = 1.001 \times \text{Transmission Miles}$$

Non-Partner large utilities (more than 10,000 transmission miles, in kilograms):

$$\text{Emissions (kg)} = 0.58 \times \text{Transmission Miles}$$

Data on transmission miles for each non-Partner utility for the years 2000, 2003, 2006, and 2009 were obtained from the 2001, 2004, 2007, and 2010 UDI Directories of Electric Power Producers and Distributors, respectively (UDI 2001, 2004, 2007, 2010). The U.S. transmission system grew by over 25,000 miles between 2000 and 2003 and by over 52,000 miles between 2003 and 2006. These periodic increases are assumed to have occurred gradually. Therefore, transmission mileage was assumed to increase at an annual rate of 1.3 percent between 2000 and 2003 and 2.6 percent between 2003 and 2006. This growth rate slowed to 0.2% from 2006 to 2009 as transmission miles increased by just 4,400 miles (approximately).

As a final step, total electric power system emissions were determined for each year by summing the Partner reported and estimated emissions (reported data was available through the EPA's SF₆ Emission Reduction Partnership for Electric Power Systems) and the non-Partner emissions (determined using the 1999 regression equations).

1990 through 1998 Emissions from Electric Power Systems

Because most participating utilities reported emissions only for 1999 through 2009, modeling was used to estimate SF₆ emissions from electric power systems for the years 1990 through 1998. To perform this modeling, U.S. emissions were assumed to follow the same trajectory as global emissions from this source during the 1990 to 1999 period. To estimate global emissions, the RAND survey of global SF₆ sales were used, together with the following equation for estimating emissions, which is derived from the mass-balance equation for chemical emissions (Volume 3, Equation 7.3) in the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006).¹³⁶ (Although equation 7.3 of the IPCC Guidelines appears in the discussion of substitutes for ozone-depleting substances, it is applicable to emissions from any long-lived pressurized equipment that is periodically serviced during its lifetime.)

$$\text{Emissions (kilograms SF}_6\text{)} = \text{SF}_6 \text{ purchased to refill existing equipment (kilograms) + nameplate capacity of retiring equipment (kilograms)}^{137}$$

Note that the above equation holds whether the gas from retiring equipment is released or recaptured; if the gas is recaptured, it is used to refill existing equipment, thereby lowering the amount of SF₆ purchased by utilities for this purpose.

Gas purchases by utilities and equipment manufacturers from 1961 through 2003 are available from the RAND (2004) survey. To estimate the quantity of SF₆ released or recovered from retiring equipment, the nameplate capacity of retiring equipment in a given year was assumed to equal 81.2 percent of the amount of gas purchased by

¹³⁶ Ideally, sales to utilities in the U.S. between 1990 and 1999 would be used as a model. However, this information was not available. There were only two U.S. manufacturers of SF₆ during this time period, so it would not have been possible to conceal sensitive sales information by aggregation.

¹³⁷ Nameplate capacity is defined as the amount of SF₆ within fully charged electrical equipment.

source of uncertainty was not modeled.

Uncertainties were also estimated regarding (1) the quantity of SF₆ supplied with equipment by equipment manufacturers, which is projected from Partner provided nameplate capacity data and industry SF₆ nameplate capacity estimates, and (2) the manufacturers' SF₆ emissions rate.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-93. Electrical Transmission and Distribution SF₆ emissions were estimated to be between 10.2 and 15.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 21 percent below and 22 percent above the emission estimate of 12.8 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-93: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for SF₆ Emissions from Electrical Transmission and Distribution (Tg CO₂ Eq. and percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to 2009 Emission Estimate ^a			
			Range (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		Range (%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	SF ₆	12.8	10.2	15.7	-21%	+22%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

In addition to the uncertainty quantified above, there is uncertainty associated with using global SF₆ sales data to estimate U.S. emission trends from 1990 through 1999. However, the trend in global emissions implied by sales of SF₆ appears to reflect the trend in global emissions implied by changing SF₆ concentrations in the atmosphere. That is, emissions based on global sales declined by 29 percent between 1995 and 1998, and emissions based on atmospheric measurements declined by 27 percent over the same period.

Several pieces of evidence indicate that U.S. SF₆ emissions were reduced as global emissions were reduced. First, the decreases in sales and emissions coincided with a sharp increase in the price of SF₆ that occurred in the mid-1990s and that affected the United States as well as the rest of the world. A representative from DILO, a major manufacturer of SF₆ recycling equipment, stated that most U.S. utilities began recycling rather than venting SF₆ within two years of the price rise. Finally, the emissions reported by the one U.S. utility that reported 1990 through 1999 emissions to EPA showed a downward trend beginning in the mid-1990s.

Recalculations Discussion

SF₆ emission estimates for the period 1990 through 2008 were updated based on (1) new data from EPA's SF₆ Emission Reduction Partnership; (2) revisions to interpolated and extrapolated non-reported Partner data; and (3) a correction made to 2004 transmission mile data for a large Partnership utility that had been interpreted incorrectly from the UDI database in previous years. Updating the 2004 transmission mile data for the Partner changed the annual transmission mile growth rates used to extrapolate total U.S. transmission mile values for years in which a UDI database was not purchased (including 1999). This recalculation impacted emission estimates in two ways. First, the regression coefficients used to estimate emissions for non-Partners are based on 1999 transmission miles and emissions for Partners that reported emissions in 1999, so the change in 1999 transmission miles affected the regression coefficients. The result was that the regression coefficient for utilities with fewer than 10,000 transmission miles increased from 0.89 to 1.001 kg of emissions per transmission mile, while the regression coefficient for utilities with more than 10,000 transmission miles increased very slightly from 0.577 to 0.578 kg of emissions per transmission mile. The second impact of the updated annual transmission mile growth rates was that the total non-Partner transmission miles that the regression coefficients are applied to were also affected. Based on the revisions listed above, SF₆ emissions from electric transmission and distribution increased between 4 to 9 percent for each year from 1990 through 2008.

In addition, the method for estimating potential emissions from the sector was updated for the 1990-2009 Inventory. In previous years, potential emissions were assumed to equal total industry SF₆ purchases, which were developed from two components: (1) purchases by Partner utilities from bulk gas distributors, and (2) purchases by electrical equipment manufacturers from bulk gas distributors. This previous method led to concerns of double-counting since Partners sometimes were recording all SF₆ received in cylinders from any source (including equipment

manufacturers) as gas received from bulk distributors. Therefore, SF₆ that was purchased by a utility from an equipment manufacturer was sometimes counted as a purchase by both the equipment manufacturer and the utility. The new method still assumes that potential emissions are equal to industry purchases, but estimates total purchases for the industry by adding the total amount of gas purchased by all U.S. utilities from any source (bulk distributor or equipment manufacturer) to estimated emissions from equipment manufacturers. It is assumed that all SF₆ purchased by equipment manufacturers is either emitted or sent to utilities.

4.23. Industrial Sources of Indirect Greenhouse Gases

In addition to the main greenhouse gases addressed above, many industrial processes generate emissions of indirect greenhouse gases. Total emissions of nitrogen oxides (NO_x), carbon monoxide (CO), and non-CH₄ volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs) from non-energy industrial processes from 1990 to 2009 are reported in Table 4-94.

Table 4-94: NO_x, CO, and NMVOC Emissions from Industrial Processes (Gg)

Gas/Source	1990	1995	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
NO_x	591	607	626	569	553	537	520	568
Other Industrial Processes	343	362	435	437	418	398	379	436
Chemical & Allied Product								
Manufacturing	152	143	95	55	57	59	61	55
Metals Processing	88	89	81	60	61	62	62	60
Storage and Transport	3	5	14	15	15	16	16	15
Miscellaneous*	5	8	2	2	2	2	2	2
CO	4,125	3,959	2,216	1,555	1,597	1,640	1,682	1,549
Metals Processing	2,395	2,159	1,175	752	788	824	859	752
Other Industrial Processes	487	566	537	484	474	464	454	484
Chemical & Allied Product								
Manufacturing	1,073	1,110	327	189	206	223	240	187
Storage and Transport	69	23	153	97	100	103	104	97
Miscellaneous*	101	102	23	32	30	27	25	29
NMVOCs	2,422	2,642	1,773	1,997	1,933	1,869	1,804	1,322
Storage and Transport	1,352	1,499	1,067	1,308	1,266	1,224	1,182	662
Other Industrial Processes	364	408	412	415	398	383	367	395
Chemical & Allied Product								
Manufacturing	575	599	230	213	211	210	207	206
Metals Processing	111	113	61	44	44	43	42	44
Miscellaneous*	20	23	3	17	14	10	7	15

* Miscellaneous includes the following categories: catastrophic/accidental release, other combustion, health services, cooling towers, and fugitive dust. It does not include agricultural fires or slash/prescribed burning, which are accounted for under the Field Burning of Agricultural Residues source.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

These emission estimates were obtained from preliminary data (EPA 2010, EPA 2009), and disaggregated based on EPA (2003), which, in its final iteration, will be published on the National Emission Inventory (NEI) Air Pollutant Emission Trends web site. Emissions were calculated either for individual categories or for many categories combined, using basic activity data (e.g., the amount of raw material processed) as an indicator of emissions. National activity data were collected for individual categories from various agencies. Depending on the category, these basic activity data may include data on production, fuel deliveries, raw material processed, etc.

Activity data were used in conjunction with emission factors, which together relate the quantity of emissions to the activity. Emission factors are generally available from the EPA's Compilation of Air Pollutant Emission Factors, AP-42 (EPA 1997). The EPA currently derives the overall emission control efficiency of a source category from a variety of information sources, including published reports, the 1985 National Acid Precipitation and Assessment Program emissions inventory, and other EPA databases.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainties in these estimates are partly due to the accuracy of the emission factors used and accurate estimates of activity data. A quantitative uncertainty analysis was not performed.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2008. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

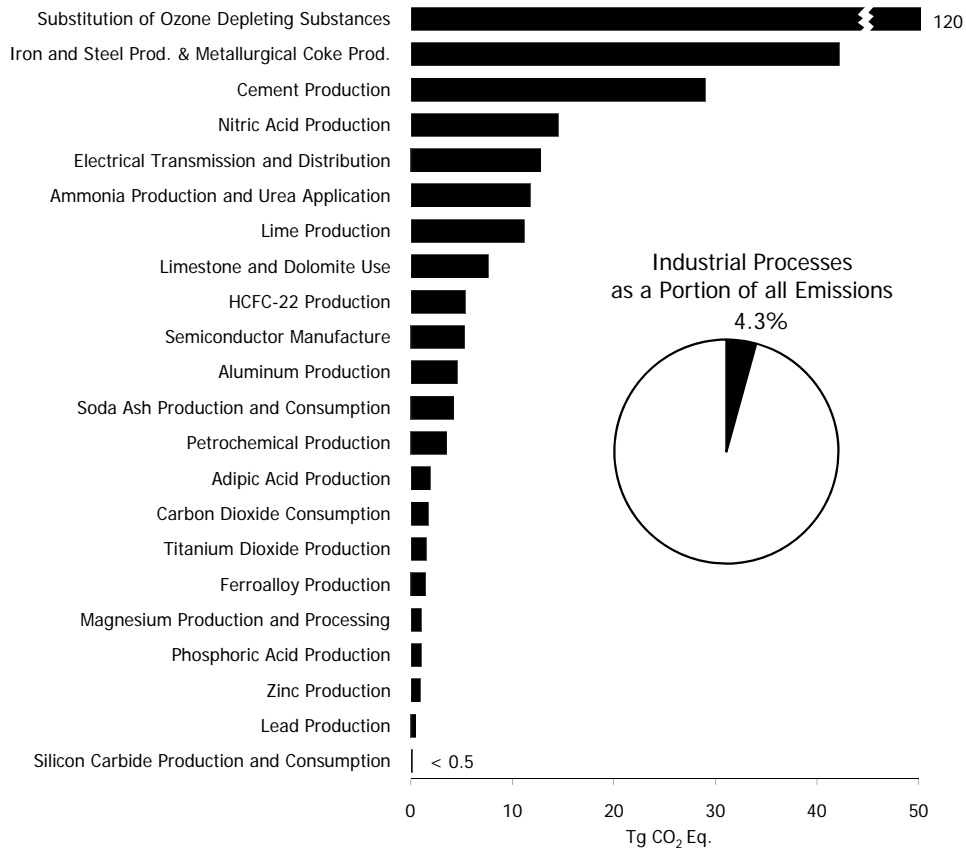


Figure 4-1: 2009 Industrial Processes Chapter Greenhouse Gas Sources

5. Solvent and Other Product Use

Greenhouse gas emissions are produced as a by-product of various solvent and other product uses. In the United States, emissions from Nitrous Oxide (N₂O) Product Uses, the only source of greenhouse gas emissions from this sector, accounted for less than 0.1 percent of total U.S. anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions on a CO₂ equivalent basis in 2009 (see Table 5-1). Indirect greenhouse gas emissions also result from solvent and other product use, and are presented in Table 5-5 in gigagrams (Gg).

Table 5-1: N₂O Emissions from Solvent and Other Product Use (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Gas/Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
N ₂ O from Product Uses							
Tg CO ₂ Eq.	4.4	4.9	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4
Gg	14	16	14	14	14	14	14

5.1. Nitrous Oxide from Product Uses (IPCC Source Category 3D)

N₂O is a clear, colorless, oxidizing liquefied gas, with a slightly sweet odor. Two companies operate a total of five N₂O production facilities in the United States (Airgas 2007; FTC 2001). N₂O is primarily used in carrier gases with oxygen to administer more potent inhalation anesthetics for general anesthesia, and as an anesthetic in various dental and veterinary applications. As such, it is used to treat short-term pain, for sedation in minor elective surgeries, and as an induction anesthetic. The second main use of N₂O is as a propellant in pressure and aerosol products, the largest application being pressure-packaged whipped cream. Small quantities of N₂O also are used in the following applications:

- Oxidizing agent and etchant used in semiconductor manufacturing;
- Oxidizing agent used, with acetylene, in atomic absorption spectrometry;
- Production of sodium azide, which is used to inflate airbags;
- Fuel oxidant in auto racing; and
- Oxidizing agent in blowtorches used by jewelers and others (Heydorn 1997).

Production of N₂O in 2009 was approximately 15 Gg (Table 5-2).

Table 5-2: N₂O Production (Gg)

Year	Gg
1990	16
2000	17
2005	15
2006	15
2007	15
2008	15
2009	15

N₂O emissions were 4.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (14 Gg) in 2009 (Table 5-3). Production of N₂O stabilized during the 1990s because medical markets had found other substitutes for anesthetics, and more medical procedures were being performed on an outpatient basis using local anesthetics that do not require N₂O. The use of N₂O as a propellant for whipped cream has also stabilized due to the increased popularity of cream products packaged in reusable plastic tubs (Heydorn 1997).

Table 5-3: N₂O Emissions from N₂O Product Usage (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	4.4	14

2000	4.9	16
2005	4.4	14
2006	4.4	14
2007	4.4	14
2008	4.4	14
2009	4.4	14

Methodology

Emissions from N₂O product usage were calculated by first multiplying the total amount of N₂O produced in the United States by the share of the total quantity of N₂O attributed to each end use. This value was then multiplied by the associated emission rate for each end use. After the emissions were calculated for each end use, they were added together to obtain a total estimate of N₂O product usage emissions. Emissions were determined using the following equation:

$$\text{N}_2\text{O Product Usage Emissions} = \sum_i [\text{Total U.S. Production of N}_2\text{O}] \times [\text{Share of Total Quantity of N}_2\text{O Usage by Sector } i] \times [\text{Emissions Rate for Sector } i]$$

where,

i = Sector.

The share of total quantity of N₂O usage by end use represents the share of national N₂O produced that is used by the specific subcategory (i.e., anesthesia, food processing, etc.). In 2009, the medical/dental industry used an estimated 89.5 percent of total N₂O produced, followed by food processing propellants at 6.5 percent. All other categories combined used the remainder of the N₂O produced. This subcategory breakdown has changed only slightly over the past decade. For instance, the small share of N₂O usage in the production of sodium azide has declined significantly during the 1990s. Due to the lack of information on the specific time period of the phase-out in this market subcategory, most of the N₂O usage for sodium azide production is assumed to have ceased after 1996, with the majority of its small share of the market assigned to the larger medical/dental consumption subcategory (Heydorn 1997). The N₂O was allocated across the following categories: medical applications, food processing propellant, and sodium azide production (pre-1996). A usage emissions rate was then applied for each sector to estimate the amount of N₂O emitted.

Only the medical/dental and food propellant subcategories were estimated to release emissions into the atmosphere, and therefore these subcategories were the only usage subcategories with emission rates. For the medical/dental subcategory, due to the poor solubility of N₂O in blood and other tissues, none of the N₂O is assumed to be metabolized during anesthesia and quickly leaves the body in exhaled breath. Therefore, an emission factor of 100 percent was used for this subcategory (IPCC 2006). For N₂O used as a propellant in pressurized and aerosol food products, none of the N₂O is reacted during the process and all of the N₂O is emitted to the atmosphere, resulting in an emission factor of 100 percent for this subcategory (IPCC 2006). For the remaining subcategories, all of the N₂O is consumed/reacted during the process, and therefore the emission rate was considered to be zero percent (Tupman 2002).

The 1990 through 1992 N₂O production data were obtained from SRI Consulting's Nitrous Oxide, North America report (Heydorn 1997). N₂O production data for 1993 through 1995 were not available. Production data for 1996 was specified as a range in two data sources (Heydorn 1997, Tupman 2002). In particular, for 1996, Heydorn (1997) estimates N₂O production to range between 13.6 and 18.1 thousand metric tons. Tupman (2003) provided a narrower range (15.9 to 18.1 thousand metric tons) for 1996 that falls within the production bounds described by Heydorn (1997). Tupman (2003) data are considered more industry-specific and current. Therefore, the midpoint of the narrower production range was used to estimate N₂O emissions for years 1993 through 2001 (Tupman 2003). The 2002 and 2003 N₂O production data were obtained from the Compressed Gas Association Nitrous Oxide Fact Sheet and Nitrous Oxide Abuse Hotline (CGA 2002, 2003). These data were also provided as a range. For example, in 2003, CGA (2003) estimates N₂O production to range between 13.6 and 15.9 thousand metric tons. Due to unavailable data, production estimates for years 2004 through 2009 were held at the 2003 value.

The 1996 share of the total quantity of N₂O used by each subcategory was obtained from SRI Consulting's Nitrous

Oxide, North America report (Heydorn 1997). The 1990 through 1995 share of total quantity of N₂O used by each subcategory was kept the same as the 1996 number provided by SRI Consulting. The 1997 through 2001 share of total quantity of N₂O usage by sector was obtained from communication with a N₂O industry expert (Tupman 2002). The 2002 and 2003 share of total quantity of N₂O usage by sector was obtained from CGA (2002, 2003). Due to unavailable data, the share of total quantity of N₂O usage data for years 2004 through 2009 was assumed to equal the 2003 value. The emissions rate for the food processing propellant industry was obtained from SRI Consulting's Nitrous Oxide, North America report (Heydorn 1997), and confirmed by a N₂O industry expert (Tupman 2002). The emissions rate for all other subcategories was obtained from communication with a N₂O industry expert (Tupman 2002). The emissions rate for the medical/dental subcategory was obtained from the 2006 IPCC Guidelines.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The overall uncertainty associated with the 2009 N₂O emission estimate from N₂O product usage was calculated using the IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (2006) Tier 2 methodology. Uncertainty associated with the parameters used to estimate N₂O emissions include production data, total market share of each end use, and the emission factors applied to each end use, respectively.

The results of this Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 5-4. N₂O emissions from N₂O product usage were estimated to be between 4.1 and 4.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level (or in 19 out of 20 Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulations). This indicates a range of approximately 8 percent below to 8 percent above the 2009 emissions estimate of 4.4 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 5-4: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for N₂O Emissions from N₂O Product Usage (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
N ₂ O Product Usage	N ₂ O	4.4	4.1	4.7	-8%	+8%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Note that this uncertainty range (±8 percent) has increased by 12 percent compared to the uncertainty range in last year's Inventory (±2 percent), due to a correction to the uncertainty input parameters. Furthermore, methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time-series are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

Planned improvements include a continued evaluation of alternative production statistics for cross verification, a reassessment of N₂O product use subcategories to accurately represent trends, investigation of production and use cycles, and the potential need to incorporate a time lag between production and ultimate product use and resulting release of N₂O. Additionally, planned improvements include considering imports and exports of N₂O for product uses.

5.2. Indirect Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Solvent Use

The use of solvents and other chemical products can result in emissions of various ozone precursors (i.e., indirect greenhouse gases).¹³⁸ Non-CH₄ volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs), commonly referred to as "hydrocarbons," are the primary gases emitted from most processes employing organic or petroleum based solvents. As some of industrial applications also employ thermal incineration as a control technology, combustion by-products, such as carbon monoxide (CO) and nitrogen oxides (NO_x), are also reported with this source category. In the United States,

¹³⁸ Solvent usage in the United States also results in the emission of small amounts of hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs) and hydrofluoroethers (HFEs), which are included under Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances in the Industrial Processes chapter.

emissions from solvents are primarily the result of solvent evaporation, whereby the lighter hydrocarbon molecules in the solvents escape into the atmosphere. The evaporation process varies depending on different solvent uses and solvent types. The major categories of solvent uses include: degreasing, graphic arts, surface coating, other industrial uses of solvents (i.e., electronics, etc.), dry cleaning, and non-industrial uses (i.e., uses of paint thinner, etc.).

Total emissions of NO_x, NMVOCs, and CO from 1990 to 2009 are reported in Table 5-5.

Table 5-5: Emissions of NO_x, CO, and NMVOC from Solvent Use (Gg)

Activity	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
NO_x	1	3	3	4	4	4	3
Surface Coating	1	3	3	4	4	4	3
Graphic Arts	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Degreasing	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Dry Cleaning	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Other Industrial Processes ^a	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Non-Industrial Processes ^b	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Other	NA	+	+	+	+	+	+
CO	5	45	2	2	2	2	2
Surface Coating	+	45	2	2	2	2	2
Other Industrial Processes ^a	4	+	+	+	+	+	+
Dry Cleaning	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Degreasing	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Graphic Arts	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Non-Industrial Processes ^b	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Other	NA	+	+	+	+	+	+
NMVOCs	5,216	4,384	3,851	3,846	3,839	3,834	2,583
Surface Coating	2,289	1,766	1,578	1,575	1,573	1,571	1,058
Non-Industrial Processes ^b	1,724	1,676	1,446	1,444	1,441	1,439	970
Degreasing	675	316	280	280	280	279	188
Dry Cleaning	195	265	230	230	229	229	154
Graphic Arts	249	222	194	193	193	193	130
Other Industrial Processes ^a	85	98	88	88	87	87	59
Other	+	40	36	36	36	36	24

^a Includes rubber and plastics manufacturing, and other miscellaneous applications.

^b Includes cutback asphalt, pesticide application adhesives, consumer solvents, and other miscellaneous applications.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg.

Methodology

Emissions were calculated by aggregating solvent use data based on information relating to solvent uses from different applications such as degreasing, graphic arts, etc. Emission factors for each consumption category were then applied to the data to estimate emissions. For example, emissions from surface coatings were mostly due to solvent evaporation as the coatings solidify. By applying the appropriate solvent-specific emission factors to the amount of solvents used for surface coatings, an estimate of emissions was obtained. Emissions of CO and NO_x result primarily from thermal and catalytic incineration of solvent-laden gas streams from painting booths, printing operations, and oven exhaust.

These emission estimates were obtained from preliminary data (EPA 2010, EPA 2009), and disaggregated based on EPA (2003), which, in its final iteration, will be published on the National Emission Inventory (NEI) Air Pollutant Emission Trends web site. Emissions were calculated either for individual categories or for many categories combined, using basic activity data (e.g., the amount of solvent purchased) as an indicator of emissions. National activity data were collected for individual applications from various agencies.

Activity data were used in conjunction with emission factors, which together relate the quantity of emissions to the activity. Emission factors are generally available from the EPA's Compilation of Air Pollutant Emission Factors,

AP-42 (EPA 1997). The EPA currently derives the overall emission control efficiency of a source category from a variety of information sources, including published reports, the 1985 National Acid Precipitation and Assessment Program emissions inventory, and other EPA databases.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainties in these estimates are partly due to the accuracy of the emission factors used and the reliability of correlations between activity data and actual emissions.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

6. Agriculture

Agricultural activities contribute directly to emissions of greenhouse gases through a variety of processes. This chapter provides an assessment of non-carbon-dioxide emissions from the following source categories: enteric fermentation in domestic livestock, livestock manure management, rice cultivation, agricultural soil management, and field burning of agricultural residues (see Figure 6-1). Carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions and removals from agriculture-related land-use activities, such as liming of agricultural soils and conversion of grassland to cultivated land, are presented in the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter. Carbon dioxide emissions from on-farm energy use are accounted for in the Energy chapter.

Figure 6-1: 2009 Agriculture Chapter Greenhouse Gas Emission Sources

In 2009, the Agriculture sector was responsible for emissions of 419.3 teragrams of CO₂ equivalents (Tg CO₂ Eq.), or 6.3 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions. Methane (CH₄) and nitrous oxide (N₂O) were the primary greenhouse gases emitted by agricultural activities. Methane emissions from enteric fermentation and manure management represent about 20 percent and 7 percent of total CH₄ emissions from anthropogenic activities, respectively. Of all domestic animal types, beef and dairy cattle were by far the largest emitters of CH₄. Rice cultivation and field burning of agricultural residues were minor sources of CH₄. Agricultural soil management activities such as fertilizer application and other cropping practices were the largest source of U.S. N₂O emissions, accounting for 69 percent. Manure management and field burning of agricultural residues were also small sources of N₂O emissions.

Table 6-1 and Table 6-2 present emission estimates for the Agriculture sector. Between 1990 and 2009, CH₄ emissions from agricultural activities increased by 14.9 percent, while N₂O emissions fluctuated from year to year, but overall increased by 4.8 percent.

Table 6-1: Emissions from Agriculture (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CH₄	171.2	186.7	190.1	191.7	198.2	197.5	196.8
Enteric Fermentation	132.1	136.5	136.5	138.8	141.0	140.6	139.8
Manure Management	31.7	42.4	46.6	46.7	50.7	49.4	49.5
Rice Cultivation	7.1	7.5	6.8	5.9	6.2	7.2	7.3
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2
N₂O	212.4	224.0	228.7	227.1	227.6	228.8	222.5
Agricultural Soil Management	197.8	206.8	211.3	208.9	209.4	210.7	204.6
Manure Management	14.5	17.1	17.3	18.0	18.1	17.9	17.9
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	383.6	410.6	418.8	418.8	425.8	426.3	419.3

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 6-2: Emissions from Agriculture (Gg)

Gas/Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CH₄	8,153	8,890	9,052	9,129	9,437	9,405	9,372
Enteric Fermentation	6,290	6,502	6,500	6,611	6,715	6,696	6,655
Manure Management	1,511	2,019	2,217	2,226	2,416	2,353	2,356
Rice Cultivation	339	357	326	282	295	343	349
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	13	12	9	11	11	13	12
N₂O	685	722	738	732	734	738	718
Agricultural Soil Management	638	667	682	674	675	680	660

Manure Management	47		55		56	58	58	58	58
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	+		+		+	+	+	+	+

+ Less than 0.5 Gg.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

6.1. Enteric Fermentation (IPCC Source Category 4A)

Methane is produced as part of normal digestive processes in animals. During digestion, microbes resident in an animal's digestive system ferment food consumed by the animal. This microbial fermentation process, referred to as enteric fermentation, produces CH₄ as a byproduct, which can be exhaled or eructated by the animal. The amount of CH₄ produced and emitted by an individual animal depends primarily upon the animal's digestive system, and the amount and type of feed it consumes.

Ruminant animals (e.g., cattle, buffalo, sheep, goats, and camels) are the major emitters of CH₄ because of their unique digestive system. Ruminants possess a rumen, or large "fore-stomach," in which microbial fermentation breaks down the feed they consume into products that can be absorbed and metabolized. The microbial fermentation that occurs in the rumen enables them to digest coarse plant material that non-ruminant animals cannot. Ruminant animals, consequently, have the highest CH₄ emissions among all animal types.

Non-ruminant animals (e.g., swine, horses, and mules) also produce CH₄ emissions through enteric fermentation, although this microbial fermentation occurs in the large intestine. These non-ruminants emit significantly less CH₄ on a per-animal basis than ruminants because the capacity of the large intestine to produce CH₄ is lower.

In addition to the type of digestive system, an animal's feed quality and feed intake also affect CH₄ emissions. In general, lower feed quality and/or higher feed intake leads to higher CH₄ emissions. Feed intake is positively correlated to animal size, growth rate, and production (e.g., milk production, wool growth, pregnancy, or work). Therefore, feed intake varies among animal types as well as among different management practices for individual animal types (e.g., animals in feedlots or grazing on pasture).

Methane emission estimates from enteric fermentation are provided in Table 6-3 and Table 6-4. Total livestock CH₄ emissions in 2009 were 139.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (6,655 Gg). Beef cattle remain the largest contributor of CH₄ emissions from enteric fermentation, accounting for 71 percent in 2009. Emissions from dairy cattle in 2009 accounted for 24 percent, and the remaining emissions were from horses, sheep, swine, and goats.

From 1990 to 2009, emissions from enteric fermentation have increased by 5.8 percent. Generally, emissions decreased from 1996 to 2003, though with a slight increase in 2002. This trend was mainly due to decreasing populations of both beef and dairy cattle and increased digestibility of feed for feedlot cattle. Emissions increased from 2004 through 2007, as both dairy and beef populations have undergone increases and the literature for dairy cow diets indicated a trend toward a decrease in feed digestibility for those years. Emissions decreased again in 2008 and 2009 as beef cattle populations again decreased. During the timeframe of this analysis, populations of sheep have decreased 49 percent while horse populations have increased over 87 percent, mostly since 1999. Goat and swine populations have increased 25 percent and 23 percent, respectively, during this timeframe.

Table 6-3: CH₄ Emissions from Enteric Fermentation (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Livestock Type	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Beef Cattle	94.5	100.6	99.3	100.9	101.6	100.7	99.6
Dairy Cattle	31.8	30.7	30.4	31.1	32.4	32.9	33.2
Horses	1.9	2.0	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6
Sheep	1.9	1.2	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Swine	1.7	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.1
Goats	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Total	132.1	136.5	136.5	138.8	141.0	140.6	139.8

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 6-4: CH₄ Emissions from Enteric Fermentation (Gg)

Livestock Type	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Beef Cattle	4,502	4,790	4,731	4,803	4,837	4,796	4,742
Dairy Cattle	1,513	1,460	1,449	1,479	1,544	1,564	1,581

Horses	91		94		166	171	171	171	171
Sheep	91		56		49	50	49	48	46
Swine	81		88		92	93	98	101	99
Goats	13		12		14	15	16	16	16
Total	6,290		6,502		6,500	6,611	6,715	6,696	6,655

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

Livestock emission estimate methodologies fall into two categories: cattle and other domesticated animals. Cattle, due to their large population, large size, and particular digestive characteristics, account for the majority of CH₄ emissions from livestock in the United States. A more detailed methodology (i.e., IPCC Tier 2) was therefore applied to estimate emissions for all cattle except for bulls. Emission estimates for other domesticated animals (horses, sheep, swine, goats, and bulls) were handled using a less detailed approach (i.e., IPCC Tier 1).

While the large diversity of animal management practices cannot be precisely characterized and evaluated, significant scientific literature exists that provides the necessary data to estimate cattle emissions using the IPCC Tier 2 approach. The Cattle Enteric Fermentation Model (CEFM), developed by EPA and used to estimate cattle CH₄ emissions from enteric fermentation, incorporates this information and other analyses of livestock population, feeding practices, and production characteristics.

National cattle population statistics were disaggregated into the following cattle sub-populations:

- Dairy Cattle
 - Calves
 - Heifer Replacements
 - Cows
- Beef Cattle
 - Calves
 - Heifer Replacements
 - Heifer and Steer Stockers
 - Animals in Feedlots (Heifers and Steers)
 - Cows
 - Bulls

Calf birth rates, end-of-year population statistics, detailed feedlot placement information, and slaughter weight data were used to create a transition matrix that models cohorts of individual animal types and their specific emission profiles. The key variables tracked for each of the cattle population categories are described in Annex 3.9. These variables include performance factors such as pregnancy and lactation as well as average weights and weight gain. Annual cattle population data were obtained from the U.S. Department of Agriculture's (USDA) National Agricultural Statistics Service (NASS) QuickStats database (USDA 2010).

Diet characteristics were estimated by region for U.S. dairy, beef, and feedlot cattle. These estimates were used to calculate Digestible Energy (DE) values (expressed as the percent of gross energy intake digested by the animal) and CH₄ conversion rates (Y_m) (expressed as the fraction of gross energy converted to CH₄) for each population category. The IPCC recommends Y_m values of 3.0±1.0 percent for feedlot cattle and 6.5±1.0 percent for other well-fed cattle consuming temperate-climate feed types (IPCC 2006). Given the availability of detailed diet information for different regions and animal types in the United States, DE and Y_m values unique to the United States were developed, rather than using the recommended IPCC values. The diet characterizations and estimation of DE and Y_m values were based on information from state agricultural extension specialists, a review of published forage quality studies and scientific literature, expert opinion, and modeling of animal physiology. The diet characteristics for dairy cattle were based on Donovan (1999) and an extensive review of nearly 20 years of literature. Dairy replacement heifer diet assumptions were based on the observed relationship in the literature between dairy cow and

dairy heifer diet characteristics. The diet assumptions for beef cattle were derived from NRC (2000). For feedlot animals, the DE and Y_m values used for 1990 were recommended by Johnson (1999). Values for DE and Y_m for 1991 through 1999 were linearly extrapolated based on the 1990 and 2000 data. DE and Y_m values for 2000 onwards were based on survey data in Galyean and Gleghorn (2001) and Vasconcelos and Galyean (2007). For grazing beef cattle, DE values were based on diet information in NRC (2000) and Y_m values were based on Johnson (2002). Weight and weight gains for cattle were estimated from Holstein Association USA (2010), Enns (2008), Lippke et al. (2000), Pinchack et al., (2004), Platter et al. (2003), Skogerboe et al. (2000), and expert opinion. See Annex 3.9 for more details on the method used to characterize cattle diets and weights in the United States.

To estimate CH₄ emissions from all cattle types except bulls and calves younger than 7 months,¹³⁹ the population was divided into state, age, sub-type (i.e., dairy cows and replacements, beef cows and replacements, heifer and steer stockers, and heifers and steers in feedlots), and production (i.e., pregnant, lactating) groupings to more fully capture differences in CH₄ emissions from these animal types. The transition matrix was used to simulate the age and weight structure of each sub-type on a monthly basis, to more accurately reflect the fluctuations that occur throughout the year. Cattle diet characteristics were then used in conjunction with Tier 2 equations from IPCC (2006) to produce CH₄ emission factors for the following cattle types: dairy cows, beef cows, dairy replacements, beef replacements, steer stockers, heifer stockers, steer feedlot animals, and heifer feedlot animals. To estimate emissions from cattle, population data from the transition matrix were multiplied by the calculated emission factor for each cattle type. More details are provided in Annex 3.9.

Emission estimates for other animal types were based on average emission factors representative of entire populations of each animal type. Methane emissions from these animals accounted for a minor portion of total CH₄ emissions from livestock in the United States from 1990 through 2009. Also, the variability in emission factors for each of these other animal types (e.g., variability by age, production system, and feeding practice within each animal type) is less than that for cattle. Annual livestock population data for these other livestock types, except horses and goats, as well as feedlot placement information, were obtained for all years from USDA NASS (USDA 2010). Horse population data were obtained from the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) FAOSTAT database (FAO 2010), because USDA does not estimate U.S. horse populations annually. Goat population data were obtained for 1992, 1997, 2002, and 2007 (USDA 2010); these data were interpolated and extrapolated to derive estimates for the other years. Methane emissions from sheep, goats, swine, and horses were estimated by using emission factors utilized in Crutzen et al. (1986, cited in IPCC 2006). These emission factors are representative of typical animal sizes, feed intakes, and feed characteristics in developed countries. The methodology is the same as that recommended by IPCC (2006).

See Annex 3.9 for more detailed information on the methodology and data used to calculate CH₄ emissions from enteric fermentation.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

A quantitative uncertainty analysis for this source category was performed through the IPCC-recommended Tier 2 uncertainty estimation methodology, Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation technique as described in ICF (2003). These uncertainty estimates were developed for the 1990 through 2001 Inventory report. No significant changes occurred in the method of data collection, data estimation methodology, or other factors that influence the uncertainty ranges around the 2009 activity data and emission factor input variables used in the current submission. Consequently, these uncertainty estimates were directly applied to the 2009 emission estimates.

A total of 185 primary input variables (177 for cattle and 8 for non-cattle) were identified as key input variables for the uncertainty analysis. A normal distribution was assumed for almost all activity- and emission factor-related input variables. Triangular distributions were assigned to three input variables (specifically, cow-birth ratios for the three most recent years included in the 2001 model run) to capture the fact that these variables cannot be negative. For some key input variables, the uncertainty ranges around their estimates (used for inventory estimation) were collected from published documents and other public sources; others were based on expert opinion and best estimates. In addition, both endogenous and exogenous correlations between selected primary input variables were

¹³⁹ Emissions from bulls are estimated using a Tier 1 approach because it is assumed there is minimal variation in population and diets. Because calves younger than 7 months consume mainly milk and the IPCC recommends the use of methane conversion factor of zero for all juveniles consuming only milk, this results in no methane emissions from this subcategory of cattle.

modeled. The exogenous correlation coefficients between the probability distributions of selected activity-related variables were developed through expert judgment.

The uncertainty ranges associated with the activity data-related input variables were plus or minus 10 percent or lower. However, for many emission factor-related input variables, the lower- and/or the upper-bound uncertainty estimates were over 20 percent. The results of the quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 6-5. Enteric fermentation CH₄ emissions in 2009 were estimated to be between 124.4 and 165.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level, which indicates a range of 11 percent below to 18 percent above the 2009 emission estimate of 139.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. Among the individual cattle sub-source categories, beef cattle account for the largest amount of CH₄ emissions as well as the largest degree of uncertainty in the inventory emission estimates. Among non-cattle, horses account for the largest degree of uncertainty in the inventory emission estimates because there is a higher degree of uncertainty among the FAO population estimates used for horses than for the USDA population estimates used for swine, goats, and sheep.

Table 6-5: Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ Emissions from Enteric Fermentation (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^{a, b}			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Enteric Fermentation	CH ₄	139.8	124.4	165.0	-11%	+18%

^a Range of emissions estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

^b Note that the relative uncertainty range was estimated with respect to the 2001 emission estimates submitted in 2003 and applied to the 2009 estimates.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section.

QA/QC and Verification

In order to ensure the quality of the emission estimates from enteric fermentation, the IPCC Tier 1 and Tier 2 Quality Assurance/Quality Control (QA/QC) procedures were implemented consistent with the U.S. QA/QC plan. Tier 2 QA procedures included independent peer review of emission estimates. Because there were no major modifications to the CEFM for 2009, QA/QC emphasis for the current Inventory was placed on cleaning up documentation and references within the model, and review of external data sources. For example, during the course of the QA/QC activities for this source category, it was noted that the U.S. total for 2009 Cattle On Feed data provided via USDA's Quickstats database did not match the total calculated from summing all individual states. The appropriate party was contacted at USDA, and it was determined that data for New Mexico and North Carolina were included individually, as well as within the "Other States" aggregate number, so they were being double counted in the U.S. total. This issue was quickly resolved.

In addition, over the past few years, particular importance has been placed on harmonizing the data exchange between the enteric fermentation and manure management source categories. The current inventory submission now utilizes the transition matrix from the CEFM for estimating cattle populations and weights for both source categories, and the CEFM is used to output volatile solids and nitrogen (N) excretion estimates using the diet assumptions in the model in conjunction with the energy balance equations from the IPCC (2006). This approach should complete the resolution of the discrepancies noted in previous reviews of these sectors, and facilitate the QA/QC process for both of these source categories.

Recalculations Discussion

There were several modifications to the estimates relative to the previous Inventory that had an effect on emission estimates, including the following:

- The average weight assumed for mature dairy cows has changed from the 1,550 pounds used in previous inventories to 1,500 pounds (Johnson 2010; Holstein Association 2010).
- The USDA published revised estimates in several categories that affected historical emissions estimated for

cattle and swine for 2008. Calves, beef replacements, and feedlot cattle all saw slight modifications to their 2008 populations, while swine population categories were modified so that the categories “<60 pounds” and “60-119 pounds” were replaced with “<50 pounds” and “50-119” pounds. Additionally, 2008 lactation estimates for Arkansas, Connecticut, Indiana, Nebraska, New Jersey, Oklahoma, South Carolina, and Vermont were updated by USDA.

- For the 1990 through 2009 inventory, goat population data were taken from the 2007 *Census of Agriculture*. For 2007 population values, the Census’s 2007 “Total Goat” population for each state was used. Using the 2002 and 2007 data points, the population for the intervening years was interpolated, and the population for 2008 and 2009 were set equal to the population for 2007. The updated Census data resulted in a change in population values from 2003 through 2008 as populations for these years were previously set equal to the 2002 population.

As a result of these changes, dairy cattle emissions decreased an average of 11.5 Gg (0.8 percent) per year and beef cattle emissions decreased an average of 0.13 Gg (less than 0.01 percent) per year over the entire time series relative to the previous Inventory. Historical emission estimates for 2008 increased by 1.3 percent for goats as a result of the USDA population revisions described above.

Planned Improvements

Continued research and regular updates are necessary to maintain a current model of cattle diet characterization, feedlot placement data, rates of weight gain and calving, among other data inputs. Ongoing revisions could include some of the following options:

- Reviewing and updating the diet assumptions for foraging beef cattle;
- Estimating bull emissions using the IPCC Tier 2 approach;
- Updating input variables that are from older data sources, such as beef births by month and beef cow lactation rates;
- The possible breakout of other animal types (i.e., sheep, swine, goats, horses) from national estimates to state-level estimates; and
- Including bison in the estimates for other domesticated animals.

In addition, recent changes that have been implemented to the CEFM warrant an assessment of the current uncertainty analysis; therefore, a revision of the quantitative uncertainty surrounding emission estimates from this source category will be initiated.

6.2. Manure Management (IPCC Source Category 4B)

The management of livestock manure can produce anthropogenic CH₄ and N₂O emissions. Methane is produced by the anaerobic decomposition of manure. Direct N₂O emissions are produced as part of the N cycle through the nitrification and denitrification of the organic N in livestock dung and urine.¹⁴⁰ Indirect N₂O emissions are produced as result of the volatilization of N as NH₃ and NO_x and runoff and leaching of N during treatment, storage and transportation.

When livestock or poultry manure are stored or treated in systems that promote anaerobic

humidity) can promote CH₄ production. Manure composition, which varies by animal diet, growth rate, and type, including the animal's digestive system, also affects the amount of CH₄ produced. In general, the greater the energy content of the feed, the greater the potential for CH₄ emissions. However, some higher-energy feeds also are more digestible than lower quality forages, which can result in less overall waste excreted from the animal.

The production of direct N₂O emissions from livestock manure depends on the composition of the manure and urine, the type of bacteria involved in the process, and the amount of oxygen and liquid in the manure system. For direct N₂O emissions to occur, the manure must first be handled aerobically where ammonia (NH₃) or organic N is converted to nitrates and nitrites (nitrification), and then handled anaerobically where the nitrates and nitrites are reduced to dinitrogen gas (N₂), with intermediate production of N₂O and nitric oxide (NO) (denitrification) (Groffman et al. 2000). These emissions are most likely to occur in dry manure handling systems that have aerobic conditions, but that also contain pockets of anaerobic conditions due to saturation. A very small portion of the total N excreted is expected to convert to N₂O in the waste management system (WMS). Indirect N₂O emissions are produced when nitrogen is lost from the system through volatilization (as NH₃ or NO_x) or through runoff and leaching. The vast majority of volatilization losses from these operations are NH₃. Although there are also some small losses of NO_x, there are no quantified estimates available for use, so losses due to volatilization are only based on NH₃ loss factors. Runoff losses would be expected from operations that house animals or store manure in a manner that is exposed to weather. Runoff losses are also specific to the type of animal housed on the operation due to differences in manure characteristics. Little information is known about leaching from manure management systems as most research focuses on leaching from land application systems. Since leaching losses are expected to be minimal, leaching losses are coupled with runoff losses and the runoff/leaching estimate does not include any leaching losses.

Estimates of CH₄ emissions in 2009 were 49.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (2,356 Gg), 56 percent higher than in 1990. Emissions increased on average by 0.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (2.5 percent) annually over this period. The majority of this increase was from swine and dairy cow manure, where emissions increased 45 and 95 percent, respectively. Although the majority of manure in the United States is handled as a solid, producing little CH₄, the general trend in manure management, particularly for dairy and swine (which are both shifting towards larger facilities), is one of increasing use of liquid systems. Also, new regulations limiting the application of manure nutrients have shifted manure management practices at smaller dairies from daily spread to manure managed and stored on site. Although national dairy animal populations have been generally decreasing, some states have seen increases in their dairy populations as the industry becomes more concentrated in certain areas of the country. These areas of concentration, such as California, New Mexico, and Idaho, tend to utilize more liquid-based systems to manage (flush or scrape) and store manure. Thus the shift toward larger facilities is translated into an increasing use of liquid manure management systems, which have higher potential CH₄ emissions than dry systems. This shift was accounted for by incorporating state and WMS-specific CH₄ conversion factor (MCF) values in combination with the 1992, 1997, and 2002 farm-size distribution data reported in the *Census of Agriculture* (USDA 2009a). Methane emissions from sheep have decreased significantly since 1990 (a 54 percent decrease from 1990 to 2009); however, this is mainly due to population changes. Overall, sheep contribute less than one percent of CH₄ emissions from animal manure management. From 2008 to 2009, there was a less than 1 percent increase in total CH₄ emissions, due to minor shifts in the animal populations and the resultant effects on manure management system allocations.

In 2009, total N₂O emissions were estimated to be 17.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (58 Gg); in 1990, emissions were 14.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (47 Gg). These values include both direct and indirect N₂O emissions from manure management. Nitrous oxide emissions have remained fairly steady since 1990. Small changes in N₂O emissions from individual animal groups exhibit the same trends as the animal group populations, with the overall net effect that N₂O emissions showed a 23 percent increase from 1990 to 2009 and a less than 1 percent decrease from 2008 through 2009.

Table 6-6 and Table 6-7 provide estimates of CH₄ and N₂O emissions from manure management by animal category.

Table 6-6: CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Manure Management (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Animal Type	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CH₄^a	31.7	42.4	46.6	46.7	50.7	49.4	49.5
Dairy Cattle	12.6	18.9	21.4	21.7	24.2	24.1	24.5
Beef Cattle	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.8	2.7
Swine	13.1	17.5	19.0	18.7	20.3	19.3	19.0
Sheep	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1

Goats	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Poultry	2.8	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.7	2.7
Horses	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5
N₂O^b	14.5	17.1	17.3	18.0	18.1	17.9	17.9
Dairy Cattle	5.3	5.6	5.6	5.8	5.8	5.7	5.8
Beef Cattle	6.1	7.8	7.5	8.0	7.9	7.8	7.8
Swine	1.2	1.6	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.0
Sheep	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3
Goats	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Poultry	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.6
Horses	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Total	46.2	59.5	63.8	64.8	68.9	67.3	67.3

+ Less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

^aAccounts for CH₄ reductions due to capture and destruction of CH₄ at facilities using anaerobic digesters.

^bIncludes both direct and indirect N₂O emissions.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 6-7: CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Manure Management (Gg)

Gas/Animal Type	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CH₄^a	1,511	2,019	2,217	2,226	2,416	2,353	2,356
Dairy Cattle	599	900	1,018	1,034	1,151	1,147	1,168
Beef Cattle	128	133	132	139	136	131	130
Swine	624	834	905	889	965	918	903
Sheep	7	4	3	3	3	3	3
Goats	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Poultry	131	127	129	131	134	129	127
Horses	22	20	28	28	27	24	24
N₂O^b	47	55	56	58	58	58	58
Dairy Cattle	17	18	18	19	19	18	19
Beef Cattle	20	25	24	26	26	25	25
Swine	4	5	6	6	6	6	6
Sheep	+	1	1	1	1	1	1
Goats	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Poultry	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
Horses	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

+ Less than 0.5 Gg.

^aAccounts for CH₄ reductions due to capture and destruction of CH₄ at facilities using anaerobic digesters.

^bIncludes both direct and indirect N₂O emissions.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

The methodologies presented in IPCC (2006) form the basis of the CH₄ and N₂O emission estimates for each animal type. This section presents a summary of the methodologies used to estimate CH₄ and N₂O emissions from manure management for this Inventory. See Annex 3.10 for more detailed information on the methodology and data used to calculate CH₄ and N₂O emissions from manure management.

Methane Calculation Methods

The following inputs were used in the calculation of CH₄ emissions:

- Animal population data (by animal type and state);
- Typical animal mass (TAM) data (by animal type);
- Portion of manure managed in each waste management system (WMS), by state and animal type;
- Volatile solids (VS) production rate (by animal type and state or United States);
- Methane producing potential (B₀) of the volatile solids (by animal type); and

- Methane conversion factors (MCF), the extent to which the CH₄ producing potential is realized for each type of WMS (by state and manure management system, including the impacts of any biogas collection efforts).

Methane emissions were estimated by first determining activity data, including animal population, TAM, WMS usage, and waste characteristics. The activity data sources are described below:

- Annual animal population data for 1990 through 2009 for all livestock types, except horses and goats were obtained from USDA NASS. For cattle, the USDA populations were utilized in conjunction with birth rates, detailed feedlot placement information, and slaughter weight data to create the transition matrix in the CEFM that models cohorts of individual animal types and their specific emission profiles. The key variables tracked for each of the cattle population categories are described in Section 6.1 and in more detail in Annex 3.9. Horse population data were obtained from the FAOSTAT database (FAO 2010). Goat population data for 1992, 1997, 2002, and 2007 were obtained from the *Census of Agriculture* (USDA 2009a).
- The TAM is an annual average weight which was obtained for animal types other than cattle from information in USDA's *Agricultural Waste Management Field Handbook* (USDA 1996a), the American Society of Agricultural Engineers, Standard D384.1 (ASAE 1999) and others (EPA 1992, Safley 2000, ERG 2010a). For a description of the TAM used for cattle, please see section 6.1, Enteric Fermentation.
- WMS usage was estimated for swine and dairy cattle for different farm size categories using data from USDA (USDA 1996b, 1998b, 2000a) and EPA (ERG 2000a, EPA 2002a, 2002b). For beef cattle and poultry, manure management system usage data were not tied to farm size but were based on other data sources (ERG 2000a, USDA 2000b, UEP 1999). For other animal types, manure management system usage was based on previous estimates (EPA 1992).
- VS production rates for all cattle except for bulls and calves were calculated by head for each state and animal type in the CEFM. VS production rates by animal mass for all other animals were determined using data from USDA's *Agricultural Waste Management Field Handbook* (USDA 1996a, 2008) and data from the American Society of Agricultural Engineers, Standard D384.1 (ASAE 1998).
- The maximum CH₄ producing capacity of the VS (B₀) was determined for each animal type based on literature values (Morris 1976, Bryant et al, 1976, Hashimoto 1981, Hashimoto 1984, EPA 1992, Hill 1982, and Hill 1984).
- MCFs for dry systems were set equal to default IPCC factors based on state climate for each year (IPCC 2006). MCFs for liquid/slurry, anaerobic lagoon, and deep pit systems were calculated based on the forecast performance of biological systems relative to temperature changes as predicted in the van't Hoff-Arrhenius equation which is consistent with IPCC (2006) Tier 2 methodology.
- Anaerobic digestion system data were obtained from the EPA AgSTAR Program, including information presented in the *AgSTAR Digest* (EPA 2000, 2003, 2006). Anaerobic digester emissions were calculated based on estimated methane production and collection and destruction efficiency assumptions (ERG 2008).

To estimate CH₄ emissions for cattle, the estimated amount of VS (kg per animal-year) managed in each WMS for each animal type, state, and year were taken from the CEFM. For animals other than cattle, the annual amount of VS (kg per year) from manure excreted in each WMS was calculated for each animal type, state, and year. This calculation multiplied the animal population (head) by the VS excretion rate (kg VS per 1,000 kg animal mass per day), the TAM (kg animal mass per head) divided by 1,000, the WMS distribution (percent), and the number of days per year (365.25).

The estimated amount of VS managed in each WMS was used to estimate the CH₄ emissions (kg CH₄ per year) from each WMS. The amount of VS (kg per year) were multiplied by the maximum CH₄ producing capacity of the VS (B₀) (m³ CH₄ per kg VS), the MCF for that WMS (percent), and the density of CH₄ (kg CH₄ per m³ CH₄). The CH₄ emissions for each WMS, state, and animal type were summed to determine the total U.S. CH₄ emissions.

Nitrous Oxide Calculation Methods

The following inputs were used in the calculation of direct and indirect N₂O emissions:

- Animal population data (by animal type and state);

- TAM data (by animal type);
- Portion of manure managed in each WMS (by state and animal type);
- Total Kjeldahl N excretion rate (N_{ex});
- Direct N_2O emission factor (EF_{WMS});
- Indirect N_2O emission factor for volatilization ($EF_{volatilization}$);
- Indirect N_2O emission factor for runoff and leaching ($EF_{runoff/leach}$);
- Fraction of nitrogen loss from volatilization of NH_3 and NO_x ($Frac_{gas}$); and
- Fraction of nitrogen loss from runoff and leaching ($Frac_{runoff/leach}$).

N_2O emissions were estimated by first determining activity data, including animal population, TAM, WMS usage, and waste characteristics. The activity data sources (except for population, TAM, and WMS, which were described above) are described below:

- N_{ex} rates for all cattle except for bulls and calves were calculated by head for each state and animal type in the CEFM. N_{ex} rates by animal mass for all other animals were determined using data from USDA's *Agricultural Waste Management Field Handbook* (USDA 1996a, 2008) and data from the American Society of Agricultural Engineers, Standard D384.1 (ASAE 1998).
- All N_2O emission factors (direct and indirect) were taken from IPCC (2006).
- Country-specific estimates for the fraction of N loss from volatilization ($Frac_{gas}$) and runoff and leaching ($Frac_{runoff/leach}$) were developed. $Frac_{gas}$ values were based on WMS-specific volatilization values as estimated from EPA's *National Emission Inventory - Ammonia Emissions from Animal Agriculture Operations* (EPA 2005). $Frac_{runoff/leaching}$ values were based on regional cattle runoff data from EPA's Office of Water (EPA 2002b; see Annex 3.1).

To estimate N_2O emissions for cattle, the estimated amount of N excreted (kg per animal-year) managed in each WMS for each animal type, state, and year were taken from the CEFM. For animals other than cattle, the amount of N excreted (kg per year) in manure in each WMS for each animal type, state, and year was calculated. The population (head) for each state and animal was multiplied by TAM (kg animal mass per head) divided by 1,000, the nitrogen excretion rate (N_{ex} , in kg N per 1000 kg animal mass per day), WMS distribution (percent), and the number of days per year.

Direct N_2O emissions were calculated by multiplying the amount of N excreted (kg per year) in each WMS by the N_2O direct emission factor for that WMS (EF_{WMS} , in kg N_2O -N per kg N) and the conversion factor of N_2O -N to N_2O . These emissions were summed over state, animal, and WMS to determine the total direct N_2O emissions (kg of N_2O per year).

Next, indirect N_2O emissions from volatilization (kg N_2O per year) were calculated by multiplying the amount of N excreted (kg per year) in each WMS by the fraction of N lost through volatilization ($Frac_{tas}$) divided by 100, and the emission factor for volatilization ($EF_{volatilization}$, in kg N_2O per kg N), and the conversion factor of N_2O -N to N_2O . Indirect N_2O emissions from runoff and leaching (kg N_2O per year) were then calculated by multiplying the amount of N excreted (kg per year) in each WMS by the fraction of N lost through runoff and leaching ($Frac_{runoff/leach}$) divided by 100, and the emission factor for runoff and leaching ($EF_{runoff/leach}$, in kg N_2O per kg N), and the conversion factor of N_2O -N to N_2O . The indirect N_2O emissions from volatilization and runoff and leaching were summed to determine the total indirect N_2O emissions.

The direct and indirect N_2O emissions were summed to determine total N_2O emissions (kg N_2O per year).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

An analysis (ERG 2003) was conducted for the manure management emission estimates presented in the 1990 through 2001 Inventory report to determine the uncertainty associated with estimating CH_4 and N_2O emissions from livestock manure management. The quantitative uncertainty analysis for this source category was performed in 2002 through the IPCC-recommended Tier 2 uncertainty estimation methodology, the Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation technique. The uncertainty analysis was developed based on the methods used to estimate CH_4 and N_2O emissions from manure management systems. A normal probability distribution was assumed for each source data category. The series of equations used were condensed into a single equation for each animal type and state. The equations for each animal group contained four to five variables around which the uncertainty analysis was

performed for each state. These uncertainty estimates were directly applied to the 2009 emission estimates.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 6-8. Manure management CH₄ emissions in 2009 were estimated to be between 40.6 and 59.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level, which indicates a range of 18 percent below to 20 percent above the actual 2009 emission estimate of 49.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. At the 95 percent confidence level, N₂O emissions were estimated to be between 15.0 and 22.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (or approximately 16 percent below and 24 percent above the actual 2009 emission estimate of 17.9 Tg CO₂ Eq.).

Table 6-8: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ and N₂O (Direct and Indirect) Emissions from Manure Management (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Manure Management	CH ₄	49.5	40.6	59.4	-18%	+20%
Manure Management	N ₂ O	17.9	15.0	22.1	-16%	+24%

^aRange of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

QA/QC and Verification

Tier 1 and Tier 2 QA/QC activities were conducted consistent with the U.S. QA/QC plan. Tier 2 activities focused on comparing estimates for the previous and current inventories for N₂O emissions from managed systems and CH₄ emissions from livestock manure. All errors identified were corrected. Order of magnitude checks were also conducted, and corrections made where needed. Manure N data were checked by comparing state-level data with bottom up estimates derived at the county level and summed to the state level. Similarly, a comparison was made by animal and WMS type for the full time series, between national level estimates for nitrogen excreted and the sum of county estimates for the full time series.

Recalculations Discussion

The CEFM produces VS and Nex data for cattle that are used in the manure management inventory. As a result, all changes to the CEFM described in Section 6.1 Enteric Fermentation contributed to changes in the VS and Nex data utilized for calculating CH₄ and N₂O emissions from manure management. In addition, to standardize the estimates of TAM between the CEFM and the manure management source category, the total VS and Nex estimates in units of kg per head per year from the CEFM were used in the manure management calculations in the current Inventory. With these changes, CH₄ and N₂O emission estimates from manure management systems are higher than reported in the previous Inventory for both beef and dairy cattle. Methane emissions from beef and dairy cattle were higher by 7 and 24 percent, respectively, while N₂O emissions were higher by 1 and 5 percent for beef and dairy cattle, respectively, averaged over the 1990 to 2008 time series.

In addition to changes in cattle Nex and VS data, the VS and Nex for other animal types were updated using data from USDA's updated *Agricultural Waste Management Field Handbook* (USDA 2008). Data from both the previous *Handbook* and the updated the *Handbook* were used to create a time series of VS and Nex data across all inventory years for all animals (ERG 2010b). The VS and Nex updates for all animals contributed to an average emission increase of 9.5 percent for CH₄ and 2.7 percent for N₂O across the time series.

For the current Inventory, USDA population data were used that included updated market swine categories. USDA changed the "market swine under 60 lbs." category to "market swine under 50 lbs." for years 2008 and 2009. In addition, USDA changed the "market swine from 60-119 lbs." to "market swine from 50-119 lbs." for the same years. This update resulted in a change in TAM estimates for those two swine categories which contributed to an overall decrease in CH₄ emissions from swine of 1.6 percent and an overall increase in N₂O emissions from swine of 20.9 percent in 2008.

The goat population was updated to reflect the USDA 2007 Census of Agriculture. This change resulted in an increase in both CH₄ and N₂O emissions for goats from the years 2003 through 2008 by 13 percent and 16 percent on average, respectively.

Planned Improvements

A recent journal article (Lory et al., 2010) criticized the IPCC and EPA methodology used to estimate greenhouse gas emissions from manure management. After review of the methodologies, EPA does not feel that any changes to the IPCC inventory methodologies are required as a result of this article; for more specific information, please see EPA's detailed response to the article (Bartram et al., 2010). EPA will continue to investigate any new or additional data sources identified that contain updated information that can be used to improve the inventory emission estimates. Also, EPA will continue to seek empirical data to compare inventory estimates to specific systems, in order to improve the methodology used to estimate greenhouse gas emissions from manure management.

USDA's 2007 *Census of Agriculture* data are finalized and available. These data will be incorporated into the county-level population estimates used for the Agricultural Soils source category and the estimates of MCF and utilize it to update the WMS distributions for swine and dairy animals.

Due to time constraints, the temperature data used to estimate MCFs were not updated for the current Inventory. Updated temperature data will be obtained and applied for subsequent Inventory reports.

The uncertainty analysis will be updated in the future to more accurately assess uncertainty of emission calculations. This update is necessary due to the extensive changes in emission calculation methodology that was made in the 1990 through 2006 Inventory, including estimation of emissions at the WMS level and the use of new calculations and variables for indirect N₂O emissions.

6.3. Rice Cultivation (IPCC Source Category 4C)

Most of the world's rice, and all rice in the United States, is grown on flooded fields. When fields are flooded, aerobic decomposition of organic material gradually depletes most of the oxygen present in the soil, causing anaerobic soil conditions. Once the environment becomes anaerobic, CH₄ is produced through anaerobic decomposition of soil organic matter by methanogenic bacteria. As much as 60 to 90 percent of the CH₄ produced is oxidized by aerobic methanotrophic bacteria in the soil (some oxygen remains at the interfaces of soil and water, and soil and root system) (Holzapfel-Pschorn et al. 1985, Sass et al. 1990). Some of the CH₄ is also leached away as dissolved CH₄ in floodwater that percolates from the field. The remaining un-oxidized CH₄ is transported from the submerged soil to the atmosphere primarily by diffusive transport through the rice plants. Minor amounts of CH₄ also escape from the soil via diffusion and bubbling through floodwaters.

The water management system under which rice is grown is one of the most important factors affecting CH₄ emissions. Upland rice fields are not flooded, and therefore are not believed to produce CH₄. In deepwater rice fields (i.e., fields with flooding depths greater than one meter), the lower stems and roots of the rice plants are dead, so the primary CH₄ transport pathway to the atmosphere is blocked. The quantities of CH₄ released from deepwater fields, therefore, are believed to be significantly less than the quantities released from areas with shallower flooding depths. Some flooded fields are drained periodically during the growing season, either intentionally or accidentally. If water is drained and soils are allowed to dry sufficiently, CH₄ emissions decrease or stop entirely. This is due to soil aeration, which not only causes existing soil CH₄ to oxidize but also inhibits further CH₄ production in soils. All rice in the United States is grown under continuously flooded conditions; none is grown under deepwater conditions. Mid-season drainage does not occur except by accident (e.g., due to levee breach).

Other factors that influence CH₄ emissions from flooded rice fields include fertilization practices (especially the use of organic fertilizers), soil temperature, soil type, rice variety, and cultivation practices (e.g., tillage, seeding, and weeding practices). The factors that determine the amount of organic material available to decompose (i.e., organic fertilizer use, soil type, rice variety,¹⁴¹ and cultivation practices) are the most important variables influencing the amount of CH₄ emitted over the growing season; the total amount of CH₄ released depends primarily on the amount of organic substrate available. Soil temperature is known to be an important factor regulating the activity of methanogenic bacteria, and therefore the rate of CH₄ production. However, although temperature controls the amount of time it takes to convert a given amount of organic material to CH₄, that time is short relative to a growing season, so the dependence of total emissions over an entire growing season on soil temperature is weak. The application of synthetic fertilizers has also been found to influence CH₄ emissions; in particular, both nitrate and

¹⁴¹ The roots of rice plants shed organic material, which is referred to as "root exudate." The amount of root exudate produced by a rice plant over a growing season varies among rice varieties.

sulfate fertilizers (e.g., ammonium nitrate and ammonium sulfate) appear to inhibit CH₄ formation.

Rice is cultivated in eight states: Arkansas, California, Florida, Louisiana, Mississippi, Missouri, Oklahoma, and Texas.¹⁴² Soil types, rice varieties, and cultivation practices for rice vary from state to state, and even from farm to farm. However, most rice farmers apply organic fertilizers in the form of residue from the previous rice crop, which is left standing, disked, or rolled into the fields. Most farmers also apply synthetic fertilizer to their fields, usually urea. Nitrate and sulfate fertilizers are not commonly used in rice cultivation in the United States. In addition, the climatic conditions of southwest Louisiana, Texas, and Florida often allow for a second, or ratoon, rice crop. Ratoon crops are much less common or non-existent in Arkansas, California, Mississippi, Missouri, Oklahoma, and northern areas of Louisiana. Methane emissions from ratoon crops have been found to be considerably higher than those from the primary crop. This second rice crop is produced from regrowth of the stubble after the first crop has been harvested. Because the first crop's stubble is left behind in ratooned fields, and there is no time delay between cropping seasons (which would allow the stubble to decay aerobically), the amount of organic material that is available for anaerobic decomposition is considerably higher than with the first (i.e., primary) crop.

Rice cultivation is a small source of CH₄ in the United States (Table 6-9 and Table 6-10). In 2009, CH₄ emissions from rice cultivation were 7.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (349 Gg). Annual emissions fluctuated unevenly between the years 1990 and 2009, ranging from an annual decrease of 14 percent to an annual increase of 17 percent. There was an overall decrease of 17 percent between 1990 and 2006, due to an overall decrease in primary crop area.¹⁴³ However, emission levels increased again by 24 percent between 2006 and 2009 due to a slight increase in rice crop area in all states. The factors that affect the rice acreage in any year vary from state to state, although the price of rice relative to competing crops is the primary controlling variable in most states.

Table 6-9: CH₄ Emissions from Rice Cultivation (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

State	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Primary	5.1	5.5	6.0	5.1	4.9	5.3	5.6
Arkansas	2.1	2.5	2.9	2.5	2.4	2.5	2.6
California	0.7	1.0	0.9	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.0
Florida	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Louisiana	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8
Mississippi	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4
Missouri	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4
Oklahoma	+	+	+	+	0.0	0.0	0.0
Texas	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Ratoon	2.1	2.0	0.8	0.9	1.3	1.9	1.8
Arkansas	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Florida	+	0.1	+	+	+	+	+
Louisiana	1.1	1.3	0.5	0.5	0.9	1.2	1.1
Texas	0.9	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.6	0.7
Total	7.1	7.5	6.8	5.9	6.2	7.2	7.3

+ Less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 6-10: CH₄ Emissions from Rice Cultivation (Gg)

State	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Primary	241	260	287	241	235	254	265
Arkansas	102	120	139	119	113	119	125
California	34	47	45	44	45	44	47
Florida	1	2	1	1	1	1	1
Louisiana	46	41	45	29	32	39	39

¹⁴² A very small amount of rice is grown on about 20 acres in South Carolina; however, this amount was determined to be too insignificant to warrant inclusion in national emission estimates.

¹⁴³ The 14 percent decrease occurred between 2005 and 2006; the 17 percent increase happened between 1993 and 1994.

Mississippi	21		19		22	16	16	19	21
Missouri	7		14		18	18	15	17	17
Oklahoma	+		+		+	+	0	+	+
Texas	30		18		17	13	12	15	14
Ratoon	98		97		39	41	60	89	84
Arkansas	+		+		1	+	+	+	+
Florida	2		2		+	1	1	1	2
Louisiana	52		61		22	22	42	59	51
Texas	45		34		17	18	16	29	31
Total	339		357		326	282	295	343	349

+ Less than 0.5 Gg

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

IPCC (2006) recommends using harvested rice areas, area-based daily emission factors (i.e., amount of CH₄ emitted per day per unit harvested area), and length of growing season to estimate annual CH₄ emissions from rice cultivation. This Inventory uses the recommended methodology and employs Tier 2 U.S.-specific emission factors derived from rice field measurements. State-specific and daily emission factors were not available, however, so average U.S. seasonal emission factors were used. Seasonal emissions have been found to be much higher for ratooned crops than for primary crops, so emissions from ratooned and primary areas are estimated separately using emission factors that are representative of the particular growing season. This approach is consistent with IPCC (2006).

The harvested rice areas for the primary and ratoon crops in each state are presented in Table 6-11, and the area of ratoon crop area as a percent of primary crop area is shown in Table 6-12. Primary crop areas for 1990 through 2009 for all states except Florida and Oklahoma were taken from U.S. Department of Agriculture's Field Crops Final Estimates 1987–1992 (USDA 1994), Field Crops Final Estimates 1992–1997 (USDA 1998), Field Crops Final Estimates 1997–2002 (USDA 2003), and Crop Production Summary (USDA 2005 through 2010). Source data for non-USDA sources of primary and ratoon harvest areas are shown in Table 6-13. California, Mississippi, Missouri, and Oklahoma have not ratooned rice over the period 1990 through 2009 (Guethle 1999 through 2010; Lee 2003 through 2007; Mutters 2002 through 2005; Street 1999 through 2003; Walker 2005, 2007 through 2008; Buehring 2009 through 2010).

Table 6-11: Rice Areas Harvested (Hectares)

State/Crop	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Arkansas							
Primary	485,633	570,619	661,675	566,572	536,220	564,549	594,901
Ratoon ^a	-	-	662	6	5	6	6
California	159,854	221,773	212,869	211,655	215,702	209,227	225,010
Florida							
Primary	4,978	7,801	4,565	4,575	6,242	5,463	5,664
Ratoon	2,489	3,193	0	1,295	1,873	1,639	2,266
Louisiana							
Primary	220,558	194,253	212,465	139,620	152,975	187,778	187,778
Ratoon	66,168	77,701	27,620	27,924	53,541	75,111	65,722
Mississippi	101,174	88,223	106,435	76,487	76,487	92,675	98,341
Missouri	32,376	68,393	86,605	86,605	72,036	80,534	80,939
Oklahoma	617	283	271	17	0	77	0
Texas							
Primary	142,857	86,605	81,344	60,704	58,681	69,607	68,798
Ratoon	57,143	43,302	21,963	23,675	21,125	36,892	39,903
Total Primary	1,148,047	1,237,951	1,366,228	1,146,235	1,118,343	1,209,911	1,261,431

Total Ratoon	125,799	124,197	50,245	52,899	76,544	113,648	107,897
Total	1,273,847	1,362,148	1,416,473	1,199,135	1,194,887	1,323,559	1,369,328

^a Arkansas ratooning occurred only in 1998, 1999, and 2005 through 2009.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 6-12: Ratooned Area as Percent of Primary Growth Area

State	1990	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Arkansas	0%		+	+			0%			0.1%	+	+	+	+
Florida	50%			65%	41%	60%	54%	100%	77%	0%	28%	30%	30%	40%
Louisiana	30%				40%	30%	15%	35%	30%	13%	20%	35%	40%	35%
Texas	40%				50%	40%	37%	38%	35%	27%	39%	36%	53%	58%

+ Indicates ratooning rate less than 0.1 percent.

Table 6-13: Non-USDA Data Sources for Rice Harvest Information

State/Crop	1990	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Arkansas											
Ratoon	Wilson (2002 – 2007, 2009 – 2010)										
Florida											
Primary	Scheuneman (1999 – 2001)	Deren (2002)	Kirstein (2003, 2006)				Gonzales (2006 – 2010)				
Ratoon	Scheuneman (1999)	Deren (2002)	Kirstein (2003-2004)		Cantens (2005)		Gonzales (2006 – 2010)				
Louisiana											
Ratoon	Bollich (2000)	Linscombe (1999, 2001 – 2010)									
Oklahoma											
Primary	Lee (2003-2007)								Anderson (2008 – 2010)		
Texas											
Ratoon	Klosterboer (1999 – 2003)				Stansel (2004 – 2005)		Texas Ag Experiment Station (2006 – 2010)				

To determine what CH₄ emission factors should be used for the primary and ratoon crops, CH₄ flux information from rice field measurements in the United States was collected. Experiments that involved atypical or nonrepresentative management practices (e.g., the application of nitrate or sulfate fertilizers, or other substances believed to suppress CH₄ formation), as well as experiments in which

magnitude. This inherent variability is due to differences in cultivation practices, particularly fertilizer type, amount, and mode of application; differences in cultivar type; and differences in soil and climatic conditions. A portion of this variability is accounted for by separating primary from ratooned areas. However, even within a cropping season or a given management regime, measured emissions may vary significantly. Of the experiments used to derive the emission factors applied here, primary emissions ranged from 22 to 479 kg CH₄/hectare-season and ratoon emissions ranged from 481 to 1,490 kg CH₄/hectare-season. The uncertainty distributions around the primary and ratoon emission factors were derived using the distributions of the relevant primary or ratoon emission factors available in the literature and described above. Variability about the rice emission factor means was not normally distributed for either primary or ratooned crops, but rather skewed, with a tail trailing to the right of the mean. A lognormal statistical distribution was, therefore, applied in the Tier 2 Monte Carlo analysis.

Other sources of uncertainty include the primary rice-cropped area for each state, percent of rice-cropped area that is ratooned, and the extent to which flooding outside of the normal rice season is practiced. Expert judgment was used to estimate the uncertainty associated with primary rice-cropped area for each state at 1 to 5 percent, and a normal distribution was assumed. Uncertainties were applied to ratooned area by state, based on the level of reporting performed by the state. No uncertainties were calculated for the practice of flooding outside of the normal rice season because CH₄ flux measurements have not been undertaken over a sufficient geographic range or under a broad enough range of representative conditions to account for this source in the emission estimates or its associated uncertainty.

To quantify the uncertainties for emissions from rice cultivation, a Monte Carlo (Tier 2) uncertainty analysis was performed using the information provided above. The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 6-14. Rice cultivation CH₄ emissions in 2009 were estimated to be between 2.5 and 18.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level, which indicates a range of 65 percent below to 146 percent above the actual 2009 emission estimate of 7.3 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 6-14: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ Emissions from Rice Cultivation (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Rice Cultivation	CH ₄	7.3	2.5	18.0	-65%	+146%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A source-specific QA/QC plan for rice cultivation was developed and implemented. This effort included a Tier 1 analysis, as well as portions of a Tier 2 analysis. The Tier 2 procedures focused on comparing trends across years, states, and cropping seasons to attempt to identify any outliers or inconsistencies. No problems were found.

Planned Improvements

A possible future improvement is to create region-specific emission factors for rice cultivation. The current methodology uses a nationwide average emission factor, derived from several studies done in a number of states. The prospective improvement would take the same studies and average them by region, presumably resulting in more spatially specific emission factors.

6.4. Agricultural Soil Management (IPCC Source Category 4D)

Nitrous oxide is produced naturally in soils through the microbial processes of nitrification and denitrification.¹⁴⁵ A number of agricultural activities increase mineral N availability in soils, thereby increasing the amount available for nitrification and denitrification, and ultimately the amount of N₂O emitted. These activities increase soil mineral N either directly or indirectly (see Figure 6-2). Direct increases occur through a variety of management practices that add or lead to greater release of mineral N to the soil, including fertilization; application of managed livestock manure and other organic materials such as sewage sludge; deposition of manure on soils by domesticated animals in pastures, rangelands, and paddocks (PRP) (i.e., by grazing animals and other animals whose manure is not managed); production of N-fixing crops and forages; retention of crop residues; and drainage and cultivation of organic cropland soils (i.e., soils with a high organic matter content, otherwise known as histosols).¹⁴⁶ Other agricultural soil management activities, including irrigation, drainage, tillage practices, and fallowing of land, can influence N mineralization in soils and thereby affect direct emissions. Mineral N is also made available in soils through decomposition of soil organic matter and plant litter, as well as asymbiotic fixation of N from the atmosphere,¹⁴⁷ and these processes are influenced by agricultural management through impacts on moisture and temperature regimes in soils. These additional sources of mineral N are included at the recommendation of IPCC (2006) for complete accounting of management impacts on greenhouse gas emissions, as discussed in the Methodology section. Indirect emissions of N₂O occur through two pathways: (1) volatilization and subsequent atmospheric deposition of applied/mineralized N,¹⁴⁸ and (2) surface runoff and leaching of applied/mineralized N into groundwater and surface water. Direct emissions from agricultural lands (i.e., cropland and grassland) are included in this section, while direct emissions from forest lands and settlements are presented in the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter. However, indirect N₂O emissions from all land-uses (cropland, grassland, forest lands, and settlements) are reported in this section.

Figure 6-2: Sources and Pathways of N that Result in N₂O Emissions from Agricultural Soil Management

Agricultural soils produce the majority of N₂O emissions in the United States. Estimated emissions from this source in 2009 were 204.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. (660 Gg N₂O) (see Table 6-15 and Table 6-16). Annual N₂O emissions from agricultural soils fluctuated between 1990 and 2009, although overall emissions were 3 percent higher in 2009 than in 1990. Year-to-year fluctuations are largely a reflection of annual variation in weather patterns, synthetic fertilizer use, and crop production. On average, cropland accounted for approximately 70 percent of total direct emissions, while grassland accounted for approximately 30 percent. These percentages are about the same for indirect emissions since forest lands and settlements account for such a small percentage of total indirect emissions. Estimated direct and indirect N₂O emissions by sub-source category are shown in Table 6-17 and Table 6-18.

Table 6-15: N₂O Emissions from Agricultural Soils (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Activity	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Direct	153.8	162.6	167.5	163.7	165.1	166.6	160.2
Cropland	102.9	115.6	118.1	115.6	117.8	117.9	112.0
Grassland	50.9	47.1	49.4	48.1	47.3	48.7	48.2
Indirect (All Land-Use Types)	44.0	44.1	43.9	45.2	44.3	44.1	44.4

¹⁴⁵ Nitrification and denitrification are driven by the activity of microorganisms in soils. Nitrification is the aerobic microbial oxidation of ammonium (NH₄⁺) to nitrate (NO₃⁻), and denitrification is the anaerobic microbial reduction of nitrate to N₂. Nitrous oxide is a gaseous intermediate product in the reaction sequence of denitrification, which leaks from microbial cells into the soil and then into the atmosphere. Nitrous oxide is also produced during nitrification, although by a less well-understood mechanism (Nevison 2000).

¹⁴⁶ Drainage and cultivation of organic soils in former wetlands enhances mineralization of N-rich organic matter, thereby increasing N₂O emissions from these soils.

¹⁴⁷ Asymbiotic N fixation is the fixation of atmospheric N₂ by bacteria living in soils that do not have a direct relationship with plants.

¹⁴⁸ These processes entail volatilization of applied or mineralized N as NH₃ and NO_x, transformation of these gases within the atmosphere (or upon deposition), and deposition of the N primarily in the form of particulate NH₄⁺, nitric acid (HNO₃), and NO_x.

Cropland	37.5		37.7		36.8	38.6	37.6	37.5	37.5
Grassland	6.1		5.8		6.3	5.9	5.9	5.9	6.2
Forest Land	+		0.1		0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Settlements	0.3		0.4		0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Total	197.8		206.8		211.3	208.9	209.4	210.7	204.6

+ Less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 6-16: N₂O Emissions from Agricultural Soils (Gg)

Activity	1990		2000		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Direct	496		525		540	528	533	538	517
Cropland	332		373		381	373	380	380	361
Grassland	164		152		159	155	152	157	155
Indirect (All Land-Use Types)	142		142		142	146	143	142	143
Cropland	121		122		119	125	121	121	121
Grassland	20		19		20	19	19	19	20
Forest Land	0		+		+	+	+	+	+
Settlements	1		1		2	2	2	2	2
Total	638		667		682	674	675	680	660

+ Less than 0.5 Gg N₂O

Table 6-17: Direct N₂O Emissions from Agricultural Soils by Land Use Type and N Input Type (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Activity	1990		2000		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Cropland	102.9		115.6		118.1	115.6	117.8	117.9	112.0
Mineral Soils	100.1		112.7		115.2	112.7	114.9	115.0	109.1
<i>Mineralization and Asymbiotic Fixation</i>	44.6		50.6		50.5	49.7	50.9	50.9	47.1
<i>Synthetic Fertilizer</i>	32.3		36.0		38.6	36.7	37.4	37.3	36.9
<i>Residue N^a</i>	12.4		14.3		13.7	13.8	13.9	14.3	13.1
<i>Organic Amendments^b</i>	10.8		11.8		12.3	12.5	12.8	12.5	12.1
Organic Soils	2.9		2.9		2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9
Grassland	50.9		47.1		49.4	48.1	47.3	48.7	48.2
Residue N ^c	15.6		13.8		14.6	14.2	13.9	14.4	14.1
PRP Manure	8.1		7.9		8.2	8.1	8.0	8.2	7.9
Synthetic Fertilizer	3.9		3.9		4.1	4.0	3.9	4.0	3.9
Managed Manure ^d	1.5		1.6		1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6
Sewage Sludge	0.3		0.4		0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Mineralization and Asymbiotic Fixation	21.5		19.5		20.4	19.7	19.3	20.0	20.1
Total	153.8		162.6		167.5	163.7	165.1	166.6	160.2

^a Cropland residue N inputs include N in unharvested legumes as well as crop residue N.

^b Organic amendment inputs include managed manure amendments, daily spread manure amendments, and commercial organic fertilizers (i.e., dried blood, dried manure, tankage, compost, and other).

^c Grassland residue N inputs include N in ungrazed legumes as well as ungrazed grass residue N

^d Accounts for managed manure and daily spread manure amendments that are applied to grassland soils.

Table 6-18: Indirect N₂O Emissions from all Land-Use Types (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Activity	1990		2000		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Cropland	37.5		37.7		36.8	38.6	37.6	37.5	37.5
Volatilization & Atm. Deposition	11.6		12.7		13.1	14.2	12.8	12.9	13.4
Surface Leaching & Run-Off	25.8		25.0		23.7	24.4	24.9	24.5	24.1
Grassland	6.1		5.8		6.3	5.9	5.9	5.9	6.2
Volatilization & Atm. Deposition	5.1		4.7		4.8	4.8	4.7	4.7	4.7

Surface Leaching & Run-Off	1.0	1.2	1.5	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.5
Forest Land	+	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Volatilization & Atm. Deposition	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Surface Leaching & Run-Off	+	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Settlements	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Volatilization & Atm. Deposition	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Surface Leaching & Run-Off	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Total	44.0	44.1	43.9	45.2	44.3	44.1	44.4

+ Less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Figure 6-3 through Figure 6-6 show regional patterns in direct N₂O emissions, and also show N losses from volatilization, leaching, and runoff that lead to indirect N₂O emissions. Average annual emissions and N losses are shown for croplands that produce major crops and from grasslands in each state. Direct N₂O emissions from croplands tend to be high in the Corn Belt (Illinois, Iowa, Indiana, Ohio, southern Minnesota, southern Wisconsin, and eastern Nebraska), where a large portion of the land is used for growing highly fertilized corn and N-fixing soybean crops. Direct emissions are also high in Missouri, Kansas, and Texas, primarily from irrigated cropping in western Texas, dryland wheat in Kansas, and hay cropping in eastern Texas and Missouri. Direct emissions are low in many parts of the eastern United States because a small portion of land is cultivated, and also low in many western states where rainfall and access to irrigation water are limited.

Direct emissions (Tg CO₂ Eq./state/year) from grasslands are highest in the central and western United States (Figure 6-4) where a high proportion of the land is used for cattle grazing. Some areas in the Great Lake states, the Northeast, and Southeast have moderate to low emissions even though emissions from these areas tend to be high on a per unit area basis, because the total amount of grassland is much lower than in the central and western United States.

Indirect emissions from croplands and grasslands (Figure 6-5 and Figure 6-6) show patterns similar to direct emissions, because the factors that control direct emissions (N inputs, weather, soil type) also influence indirect emissions. However, there are some exceptions, because the processes that contribute to indirect emissions (NO₃⁻ leaching, N volatilization) do not respond in exactly the same manner as the processes that control direct emissions (nitrification and denitrification). For example, coarser-textured soils facilitate relatively high indirect emissions in Florida grasslands due to high rates of N volatilization and NO₃⁻ leaching, even though they have only moderate rates of direct N₂O emissions.

Figure 6-3: Major Crops, Average Annual Direct N₂O Emissions Estimated Using the DAYCENT Model, 1990-2009 (Tg CO₂ Eq./year)

[Figure will be provided in public review]

Figure 6-4: Grasslands, Average Annual Direct N₂O Emissions Estimated Using the DAYCENT Model, 1990-2009 (Tg CO₂ Eq./year)

[Figure will be provided in public review]

Figure 6-5: Major Crops, Average Annual N Losses Leading to Indirect N₂O Emissions Estimated Using the DAYCENT Model, 1990-2009 (Gg N/year)

[Figure will be provided in public review]

Figure 6-6: Grasslands, Average Annual N Losses Leading to Indirect N₂O Emissions Estimated Using the DAYCENT Model, 1990-2009 (Gg N/year)

[Figure will be provided in public review]

Methodology

The 2006 IPCC Guidelines (IPCC 2006) divide the Agricultural Soil Management source category into four components: (1) direct emissions due to N additions to cropland and grassland mineral soils, including synthetic

fertilizers, sewage sludge applications, crop residues, organic amendments, and biological N fixation associated with planting of legumes on cropland and grassland soils; (2) direct emissions from drainage and cultivation of organic cropland soils; (3) direct emissions from soils due to the deposition of manure by livestock on PRP grasslands; and (4) indirect emissions from soils and water due to N additions and manure deposition to soils that lead to volatilization, leaching, or runoff of N and subsequent conversion to N₂O.

The United States has adopted recommendations from IPCC (2006) on methods for agricultural soil management. These recommendations include (1) estimating the contribution of N from crop residues to indirect soil N₂O emissions; (2) adopting a revised emission factor for direct N₂O emissions to the extent that Tier 1 methods are used in the Inventory (described later in this section); (3) removing double counting of emissions from N-fixing crops associated with the biological N fixation and crop residue N input categories; (4) using revised crop residue statistics to compute N inputs to soils based on harvest yield data to the extent that Tier 1 methods are used in the Inventory; (5) accounting for indirect as well as direct emissions from N made available via mineralization of soil organic matter and litter, in addition to asymbiotic fixation¹⁴⁹ (i.e., computing total emissions from managed land); and (6) reporting all emissions from managed lands, largely because management affects all processes leading to soil N₂O emissions. One recommendation from IPCC (2006) that has not been adopted is the accounting of emissions from pasture renewal, which involves occasional plowing to improve forage production. This practice is not common in the United States, and is not estimated.

The methodology used to estimate emissions from agricultural soil management in the United States is based on a combination of IPCC Tier 1 and 3 approaches. A Tier 3, process-based model (DAYCENT) was used to estimate direct emissions from major crops on mineral (i.e., non-organic) soils; as well as most of the direct emissions from grasslands. The Tier 3 approach has been specifically designed and tested to estimate N₂O emissions in the United States, accounting for more of the environmental and management influences on soil N₂O emissions than the IPCC Tier 1 method (see Box 6-1 for further elaboration). The Tier 1 IPCC (2006) methodology was used to estimate (1) direct emissions from non-major crops on mineral soils (e.g., barley, oats, vegetables, and other crops); (2) the portion of the grassland direct emissions that were not estimated with the Tier 3 DAYCENT model (i.e., federal grasslands); and (3) direct emissions from drainage and cultivation of organic cropland soils. Indirect emissions were also estimated with a combination of DAYCENT and the IPCC Tier 1 method.

In past Inventories, attempts were made to subtract “background” emissions that would presumably occur if the lands were not managed. However, this approach is likely to be inaccurate for estimating the anthropogenic influence on soil N₂O emissions. Moreover, if background emissions could be measured or modeled based on processes unaffected by anthropogenic activity, they would be a very small portion of the total emissions, due to the high inputs of N to agricultural soils from fertilization and legume cropping. Given the recommendation from IPCC (2006) and the influence of management on all processes leading to N₂O emissions from soils in agricultural systems, the decision was made to report total emissions from managed lands for this source category. Annex 3.11 provides more detailed information on the methodologies and data used to calculate N₂O emissions from each component.

[BEGIN BOX]

Box 6-1. Tier 1 vs. Tier 3 Approach for Estimating N₂O Emissions

The IPCC (2006) Tier 1 approach is based on multiplying activity data on different N inputs (e.g., synthetic fertilizer, manure, N fixation, etc.) by the appropriate default IPCC emission factors to estimate N₂O emissions on an input-by-input basis. The Tier 1 approach requires a minimal amount of activity data, readily available in most countries (e.g., total N applied to crops); calculations are simple; and the methodology is highly transparent. In contrast, the Tier 3 approach developed for this Inventory employs a process-based model (i.e., DAYCENT) that represents the interaction of N inputs and the environmental conditions at specific locations. Consequently, the Tier

¹⁴⁹ N inputs from asymbiotic N fixation are not directly addressed in *2006 IPCC Guidelines*, but are a component of the total emissions from managed lands and are included in the Tier 3 approach developed for this source.

3 approach is likely to produce more accurate estimates; it accounts more comprehensively for land-use and management impacts and their interaction with environmental factors (i.e., weather patterns and soil characteristics), which will enhance or dampen anthropogenic influences. However, the Tier 3 approach requires more detailed activity data (e.g., crop-specific N amendment rates), additional data inputs (e.g., daily weather, soil types, etc.), and considerable computational resources and programming expertise. The Tier 3 methodology is less transparent, and thus it is critical to evaluate the output of Tier 3 methods against measured data in order to demonstrate the adequacy of the method for estimating emissions (IPCC 2006). Another important difference between the Tier 1 and Tier 3 approaches relates to assumptions regarding N cycling. Tier 1 assumes that N added to a system is subject to N₂O emissions only during that year and cannot be stored in soils and contribute to N₂O emissions in subsequent years. This is a simplifying assumption that is likely to create bias in estimated N₂O emissions for a specific year. In contrast, the process-based model used in the Tier 3 approach includes such legacy effects when N added to soils is re-mineralized from soil organic matter and emitted as N₂O during subsequent years.

[END BOX]

Direct N₂O Emissions from Cropland Soils

Major Crop Types on Mineral Cropland Soils

The DAYCENT ecosystem model (Del Grosso et al. 2001, Parton et al. 1998) was used to estimate direct N₂O emissions from mineral cropland soils that are managed for production of major crops—specifically corn, soybeans, wheat, alfalfa hay, other hay, sorghum, and cotton—representing approximately 90 percent of total croplands in the United States. For these croplands, DAYCENT was used to simulate crop growth, soil organic matter decomposition, greenhouse gas fluxes, and key biogeochemical processes affecting N₂O emissions, and the simulations were driven by model input data generated from daily weather records (Thornton et al. 1997, 2000; Thornton and Running 1999), land management surveys (see citations below), and soil physical properties determined from national soil surveys (Soil Survey Staff 2005). Note that the influence of land-use change on soil N₂O emissions was not addressed in this analysis, but is a planned improvement.

DAYCENT simulations were conducted for each major crop at the county scale in the United States. Simulating N₂O emissions at the county scale was facilitated by soil and weather data that were available for every county with more than 100 acres of agricultural land, and by land management data (e.g., timing of planting, harvesting, and intensity of cultivation) that were available at the agricultural-region level as defined by the Agricultural Sector Model (McCarl et al. 1993). ASM has 63 agricultural regions in the contiguous United States. Most regions correspond to one state, except for those states with greater heterogeneity in agricultural practices; in such cases, more than one region is assigned to a state. While cropping systems were simulated for each county, the results best represent emissions at regional (i.e., state) and national levels due to the regional scale of management data, which include model parameters that determined the influence of management activities on soil N₂O emissions (e.g., when crops were planted/harvested).

Nitrous oxide emissions from managed agricultural lands are the result of interactions among anthropogenic activities (e.g., N fertilization, manure application, tillage) and other driving variables, such as weather and soil characteristics. These factors influence key processes associated with N dynamics in the soil profile, including immobilization of N by soil microbial organisms, decomposition of organic matter, plant uptake, leaching, runoff, and volatilization, as well as the processes leading to N₂O production (nitrification and denitrification). It is not possible to partition N₂O emissions into each anthropogenic activity directly from model outputs due to the complexity of the interactions (e.g., N₂O emissions from synthetic fertilizer applications cannot be distinguished from those resulting from manure applications). To approximate emissions by activity, the amount of mineral N added to the soil for each of these sources was determined and then divided by the total amount of mineral N that was made available in the soil according to the DAYCENT model. The percentages were then multiplied by the total of direct N₂O emissions in order to approximate the portion attributed to key practices. This approach is only an approximation because it assumes that all N made available in soil has an equal probability of being released as N₂O, regardless of its source, which is unlikely to be the case (Delgado et al., 2009). However, this approach allows for further disaggregation of emissions by source of N, which is valuable for reporting purposes and is analogous to the reporting associated with the IPCC (2006) Tier 1 method, in that it associates portions of the total soil N₂O

emissions with individual sources of N.

DAYCENT was used to estimate direct N₂O emissions due to mineral N available from: (1) the application of synthetic fertilizers; (2) the application of livestock manure; (3) the retention of crop residues (i.e., leaving residues in the field after harvest instead of burning or collecting residues); and (4) mineralization of soil organic matter and litter, in addition to asymbiotic fixation. Note that commercial organic fertilizers are addressed with the Tier 1 method because county-level application data would be needed to simulate applications in DAYCENT, and currently data are only available at the national scale. The third and fourth sources are generated internally by the DAYCENT model. For the first two practices, annual changes in soil mineral N due to anthropogenic activity were obtained or derived from the following sources:

- Crop-specific N-fertilization rates: Data sources for fertilization rates include Alexander and Smith (1990), Anonymous (1924), Battaglin and Goolsby (1994), Engle and Makela (1947), ERS (1994, 2003), Fraps and Asbury (1931), Ibach and Adams (1967), Ibach et al. (1964), NFA (1946), NRIAI (2003), Ross and Mehring (1938), Skinner (1931), Smalley et al. (1939), Taylor (1994), and USDA (1966, 1957, 1954, 1946). Information on fertilizer use and rates by crop type for different regions of the United States were obtained primarily from the USDA *Economic Research Service Cropping Practices Survey* (ERS 1997) with additional data from other sources, including the National Agricultural Statistics Service (NASS 1992, 1999, 2004).
- Managed manure production and application to croplands and grasslands: Manure N amendments and daily spread manure N amendments applied to croplands and grasslands (not including PRP manure) were determined using USDA Manure N Management Databases for 1997 (Kellogg et al. 2000; Edmonds et al. 2003). Amendment data for 1997 were scaled to estimate values for other years based on the availability of managed manure N for application to soils in 1997 relative to other years. The amount of available N from managed manure for each livestock type was calculated as described in the Manure Management section (Section 6.2) and Annex 3.10.
- Retention of crop residue, N mineralization from soil organic matter, and asymbiotic N fixation from the atmosphere: The IPCC approach considers crop residue N and N mineralized from soil organic matter as activity data. However, they are not treated as activity data in DAYCENT simulations because residue production, N fixation, mineralization of N from soil organic matter, and asymbiotic fixation are internally generated by the model as part of the simulation. In other words, DAYCENT accounts for the influence of N fixation, mineralization of N from soil organic matter, and retention of crop residue on N₂O emissions, but these are not model inputs. The DAYCENT simulations also accounted for the approximately 3 percent of grain crop residues that were assumed to be burned based on state inventory data (ILENR 1993, Oregon Department of Energy 1995, Noller 1996, Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources 1993, and Cibrowski 1996), and therefore did not contribute to soil N₂O emissions.
- Historical and modern crop rotation and management information (e.g., timing and type of cultivation, timing of planting/harvest, etc.): These activity data were derived from Hurd (1930, 1929), Latta (1938), Iowa State College Staff Members (1946), Bogue (1963), Hurt (1994), USDA (2000a) as extracted by Eve (2001) and revised by Ogle (2002), CTIC (1998), Piper et al. (1924), Hardies and Hume (1927), Holmes (1902, 1929), Spillman (1902, 1905, 1907, 1908), Chilcott (1910), Smith (1911), Kezer (ca. 1917), Hargreaves (1993), ERS (2002), Warren (1911), Langston et al. (1922), Russell et al. (1922), Elliott and Tapp (1928), Elliott (1933), Ellsworth (1929), Garey (1929), Hodges et al. (1930), Bonnen and Elliott (1931), Brenner et al. (2002, 2001), and Smith et al. (2002).

DAYCENT simulations produced per-area estimates of N₂O emissions (g N₂O-N/m²) for major crops in each county, which were multiplied by the cropland areas in each county to obtain county-scale emission estimates. Cropland area data were from NASS (USDA 2010a, 2010b). The emission estimates by reported crop areas in the county were scaled to the regions (and states for mapping purposes when there was more than one region in a state), and the national estimate was calculated by summing results across all regions. DAYCENT is sensitive to interannual variability in weather patterns and other controlling variables, so emissions associated with individual activities vary through time even if the management practices remain the same (e.g., if N fertilization remains the same for two years). In contrast, Tier 1 methods do not capture this variability and rather have a linear, monotonic response that depends solely on management practices. DAYCENT's ability to capture these interactions between management and environmental conditions produces more accurate estimates of N₂O emissions than the Tier 1 method.

Non-Major Crop Types on Mineral Cropland Soils

The IPCC (2006) Tier 1 methodology was used to estimate direct N₂O emissions for mineral cropland soils that are managed for production of non-major crop types, including barley, oats, tobacco, sugarcane, sugar beets, sunflowers, millet, rice, peanuts, and other crops that were not included in the DAYCENT simulations. Estimates of direct N₂O emissions from N applications to non-major crop types were based on mineral soil N that was made available from the following practices: (1) the application of synthetic commercial fertilizers; (2) application of managed manure and non-manure commercial organic fertilizers;¹⁵⁰ and (3) the retention of above- and below-ground crop residues in agricultural fields (i.e., crop biomass that is not harvested). Non-manure organic amendments were not included in the DAYCENT simulations because county-level data were not available. Consequently, non-manure organic amendments, as well as additional manure that was not added to major crops in the DAYCENT simulations, were included in the Tier 1 analysis. The influence of land-use change on soil N₂O emissions from non-major crops has not been addressed in this analysis, but is a planned improvement. The following sources were used to derive activity data:

- A process-of-elimination approach was used to estimate synthetic N fertilizer additions for non-major crops, because little information exists on their fertilizer application rates. The total amount of fertilizer used on farms has been estimated by the USGS from sales records (Ruddy et al. 2006), and these data were aggregated to obtain state-level N additions to farms. After subtracting the portion of fertilizer applied to major crops and grasslands (see sections on Major Crops and Grasslands for information on data sources), the remainder of the total fertilizer used on farms was assumed to be applied to non-major crops.
- A process-of-elimination approach was used to estimate manure N additions for non-major crops, because little information exists on application rates for these crops. The amount of manure N applied to major crops and grasslands was subtracted from total manure N available for land application (see sections on Major Crops and Grasslands for information on data sources), and this difference was assumed to be applied to non-major crops.
- Non-manure, non-sewage-sludge commercial organic fertilizer additions were based on organic fertilizer consumption statistics, which were converted to units of N using average organic fertilizer N content (TVA 1991 through 1994; AAPFCO 1995 through 2010). Manure and sewage sludge components were subtracted from total commercial organic fertilizers to avoid double counting.
- Crop residue N was derived by combining amounts of above- and below-ground biomass, which were determined based on crop production yield statistics (USDA 1994, 1998, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2008, 2009, 2010a), dry matter fractions (IPCC 2006), linear equations to estimate above-ground biomass given dry matter crop yields from harvest (IPCC 2006), ratios of below-to-above-ground biomass (IPCC 2006), and N contents of the residues (IPCC 2006). Approximately 3 percent of the crop residues were burned and therefore did not contribute to soil N₂O emissions, based on state inventory data (ILENR 1993, Oregon Department of Energy 1995, Noller 1996, Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources 1993, and Cibrowski 1996).

The total increase in soil mineral N from applied fertilizers and crop residues was multiplied by the IPCC (2006) default emission factor to derive an estimate of direct N₂O emissions from non-major crop types.

Drainage and Cultivation of Organic Cropland Soils

The IPCC (2006) Tier 1 methods were used to estimate direct N₂O emissions due to drainage and cultivation of organic soils at a state scale. State-scale estimates of the total area of drained and cultivated organic soils were obtained from the *National Resources Inventory* (NRI) (USDA 2000a, as extracted by Eve 2001 and amended by Ogle 2002). Temperature data from Daly et al. (1994, 1998) were used to subdivide areas into temperate and sub-tropical climates using the climate classification from IPCC (2006). Data were available for 1982, 1992 and 1997. To estimate annual emissions, the total temperate area was multiplied by the IPCC default emission factor for temperate regions, and the total sub-tropical area was multiplied by the average of the IPCC default emission factors for temperate and tropical regions (IPCC 2006).

¹⁵⁰ Commercial organic fertilizers include dried blood, tankage, compost, and other; dried manure and sewage sludge that are used as commercial fertilizer have been excluded to avoid double counting. The dried manure N is counted with the non-commercial manure applications, and sewage sludge is assumed to be applied only to grasslands.

Direct N₂O Emissions from Grassland Soils

As with N₂O from croplands, the Tier 3 process-based DAYCENT model and Tier 1 method described in IPCC (2006) were combined to estimate emissions from grasslands. Grasslands include pastures and rangelands used for grass forage production, where the primary use is livestock grazing. Rangelands are typically extensive areas of native grasslands that are not intensively managed, while pastures are often seeded grasslands, possibly following tree removal, which may or may not be improved with practices such as irrigation and interseeding legumes.

DAYCENT was used to simulate county-scale N₂O emissions from non-federal grasslands resulting from manure deposited by livestock directly onto pastures and rangelands (i.e., PRP manure), N fixation from legume seeding, managed manure amendments (i.e., manure other than PRP manure), and synthetic fertilizer application. Other N inputs were simulated within the DAYCENT framework, including N input from mineralization due to decomposition of soil organic matter and N inputs from senesced grass litter, as well as asymbiotic fixation of N from the atmosphere. The simulations used the same weather, soil, and synthetic N fertilizer data as discussed under the section for Major Crop Types on Mineral Cropland Soils. Managed manure N amendments to grasslands were estimated from Edmonds et al. (2003) and adjusted for annual variation using data on the availability of managed manure N for application to soils, according to methods described in the Manure Management section (Section 6.2) and Annex 3.10. Biological N fixation is simulated within DAYCENT and therefore was not an input to the model.

Manure N deposition from grazing animals (i.e., PRP manure) is another key input of N to grasslands. The amounts of PRP manure N applied on non-federal and federal grasslands in each county were based on the proportion of non-federal to federal grassland area (See below for more information on area data). The amount of PRP manure applied on non-federal grasslands was an input to the DAYCENT model (see Annex 3.10), and included approximately 91 percent of total PRP manure. The remainder of the PRP manure N excretions in each county was assumed to be excreted on federal grasslands (i.e., DAYCENT simulations were only conducted for non-federal grasslands), and the N₂O emissions were estimated using the IPCC (2006) Tier 1 method with IPCC default emission factors. Sewage sludge was assumed to be applied on grasslands because of the heavy metal content and other pollutants in human waste that limit its use as an amendment to croplands. Sewage sludge application was estimated from data compiled by EPA (1993, 1999, 2003), McFarland (2001), and NEBRA (2007). Sewage sludge data on soil amendments to agricultural lands were only available at the national scale, and it was not possible to associate application with specific soil conditions and weather at the county scale. Therefore, DAYCENT could not be used to simulate the influence of sewage sludge amendments on N₂O emissions from grassland soils, and consequently, emissions from sewage sludge were estimated using the IPCC (2006) Tier 1 method.

Grassland area data were consistent with the Land Representation reported in Section 7.1. Data were obtained from the U.S. Department of Agriculture *National Resources Inventory* (USDA 2000a, Nusser and Goebel 1997, <http://www.ncgc.nrcs.usda.gov/products/nri/index.htm>) and the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) National Land Cover Dataset (NLCD, Vogelmann et al. 2001, <http://www.mrlc.gov>), which were reconciled with the Forest Inventory and Analysis Data (<http://fia.fs.us/tools-data/data>). The area data for pastures and rangeland were aggregated to the county level to estimate non-federal and federal grassland areas.

DAYCENT simulations produced per-area estimates of N₂O emissions (g N₂O-N/m²) for pasture and rangelands, which were multiplied by the non-federal grassland areas in each county. The county-scale N₂O emission estimates for non-federal grasslands were scaled to the 63 agricultural regions (and to the state level for mapping purposes if there was more than one region in a state), and the national estimate was calculated by summing results across all regions. Tier 1 estimates of N₂O emissions for the PRP manure N deposited on federal grasslands and applied sewage sludge N were produced by multiplying the N input by the appropriate emission factor. Tier 1 estimates for emissions from manure N were calculated at the state level and aggregated to the entire country but emission from sewage sludge N were calculated exclusively at the national scale.

Total Direct N₂O Emissions from Cropland and Grassland Soils

Annual direct emissions from major and non-major crops on mineral cropland soils, from drainage and cultivation of organic cropland soils, and from grassland soils were summed to obtain the total direct N₂O emissions from agricultural soil management (see Table 6-15 and Table 6-16).

Indirect N₂O Emissions from Managed Soils of all Land-Use Types

This section describes the methods used for estimating indirect soil N₂O emissions from all land-use types (i.e.,

croplands, grasslands, forest lands, and settlements). Indirect N₂O emissions occur when mineral N made available through anthropogenic activity is transported from the soil either in gaseous or aqueous forms and later converted into N₂O. There are two pathways leading to indirect emissions. The first pathway results from volatilization of N as NO_x and NH₃ following application of synthetic fertilizer, organic amendments (e.g., manure, sewage sludge), and deposition of PRP manure. N made available from mineralization of soil organic matter and asymbiotic fixation also contributes to volatilized N emissions. Volatilized N can be returned to soils through atmospheric deposition, and a portion of the deposited N is emitted to the atmosphere as N₂O. The second pathway occurs via leaching and runoff of soil N (primarily in the form of NO₃⁻) that was made available through anthropogenic activity on managed lands, mineralization of soil organic matter, and asymbiotic fixation. The NO₃⁻ is subject to denitrification in water bodies, which leads to N₂O emissions. Regardless of the eventual location of the indirect N₂O emissions, the emissions are assigned to the original source of the N for reporting purposes, which here includes croplands, grasslands, forest lands, and settlements.

Indirect N₂O Emissions from Atmospheric Deposition of Volatilized N from Managed Soils

As in the direct emissions calculation, the Tier 3 DAYCENT model and IPCC (2006) Tier 1 methods were combined to estimate the amount of N that was volatilized and eventually emitted as N₂O. DAYCENT was used to estimate N volatilization for land areas whose direct emissions were simulated with DAYCENT (i.e., major croplands and most grasslands). The N inputs included are the same as described for direct N₂O emissions in the sections on major crops and grasslands. Nitrogen volatilization for all other areas was estimated using the Tier 1 method and default IPCC fractions for N subject to volatilization (i.e., N inputs on non-major croplands, PRP manure N excretion on federal grasslands, sewage sludge application on grasslands). The Tier 1 method and default fractions were also used to estimate N subject to volatilization from N inputs on settlements and forest lands (see the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter). For the volatilization data generated from both the DAYCENT and Tier 1 approaches, the IPCC (2006) default emission factor was used to estimate indirect N₂O emissions occurring due to re-deposition of the volatilized N (Table 6-18).

Indirect N₂O Emissions from Leaching/Runoff

As with the calculations of indirect emissions from volatilized N, the Tier 3 DAYCENT model and IPCC (2006) Tier 1 method were combined to estimate the amount of N that was subject to leaching and surface runoff into water bodies, and eventually emitted as N₂O. DAYCENT was used to simulate the amount of N transported from lands used to produce major crops and most grasslands. N transport from all other areas was estimated using the Tier 1 method and the IPCC (2006) default factor for the proportion of N subject to leaching and runoff. This N transport estimate includes N applications on croplands that produce non-major crops, sewage sludge amendments on grasslands, PRP manure N excreted on federal grasslands, and N inputs on settlements and forest lands. For both the DAYCENT and IPCC (2006) Tier 1 methods, nitrate leaching was assumed to be an insignificant source of indirect N₂O in cropland and grassland systems in arid regions as discussed in IPCC (2006). In the United States, the threshold for significant nitrate leaching is based on the potential evapotranspiration (PET) and rainfall amount, similar to IPCC (2006), and is assumed to be negligible in regions where the amount of precipitation plus irrigation does not exceed 80 percent of PET. For leaching and runoff data estimated by the DAYCENT and Tier 1 approaches, the IPCC (2006) default emission factor was used to estimate indirect N₂O emissions that occur in groundwater and waterways (Table 6-18).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainty was estimated for each of the following five components of N₂O emissions from agricultural soil management: (1) direct emissions calculated by DAYCENT; (2) the components of indirect emissions (N volatilized and leached or runoff) calculated by DAYCENT; (3) direct emissions calculated with the IPCC (2006) Tier 1 method; (4) the components of indirect emissions (N volatilized and leached or runoff) calculated with the IPCC (2006) Tier 1 method; and (5) indirect emissions calculated with the IPCC (2006) Tier 1 method. Uncertainty in direct emissions, which account for the majority of N₂O emissions from agricultural management, as well as the components of indirect emissions calculated by DAYCENT were estimated with a Monte Carlo Analysis, addressing uncertainties in model inputs and structure (i.e., algorithms and parameterization) (Del Grosso et al., 2010). Uncertainties in direct emissions calculated with the IPCC (2006) Tier 1 method, the proportion of volatilization and leaching or runoff estimated with the IPCC (2006) Tier 1 method, and indirect N₂O emissions were estimated with a simple error propagation approach (IPCC 2006). Additional details on the uncertainty

methods are provided in Annex 3.11.

Uncertainties from the Tier 1 and Tier 3 (i.e., DAYCENT) estimates were combined using simple error propagation (IPCC 2006), and the results are summarized in Table 6-19. Agricultural direct soil N₂O emissions in 2009 were estimated to be between 118.3 and 250.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 26 percent below and 56 percent above the 2009 emission estimate of 160.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. The indirect soil N₂O emissions in 2009 were estimated to range from 22.4 to 111.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level, indicating an uncertainty of 50 percent below and 151 percent above the 2009 emission estimate of 44.4 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 6-19: Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates of N₂O Emissions from Agricultural Soil Management in 2009 (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Direct Soil N ₂ O Emissions	N ₂ O	160.2	118.3	250.6	-26%	+56%
Indirect Soil N ₂ O Emissions	N ₂ O	44.4	22.4	111.6	-50%	+151%

Note: Due to lack of data, uncertainties in areas for major crops, managed manure N production, PRP manure N production, other organic fertilizer amendments, indirect losses of N in the DAYCENT simulations, and sewage sludge amendments to soils are currently treated as certain; these sources of uncertainty will be included in future Inventories.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

For quality control, DAYCENT results for N₂O emissions and NO₃⁻ leaching were compared with field data representing various cropland and grassland systems, soil types, and climate patterns (Del Grosso et al. 2005, Del Grosso et al. 2008), and further evaluated by comparing to emission estimates produced using the IPCC (2006) Tier 1 method for the same sites. Nitrous oxide measurement data were available for 11 sites in the United States and one in Canada, representing 30 different combinations of fertilizer treatments and cultivation practices. DAYCENT estimates of N₂O emissions were closer to measured values at all sites compared to the IPCC Tier 1 estimate, except for Colorado dryland cropping (Figure 6-7). In general, IPCC Tier 1 methodology tends to over-estimate emissions when observed values are low and under-estimate emissions when observed values are high, while DAYCENT estimates are less biased. This is not surprising because DAYCENT accounts for site-level factors (weather, soil type) that influence N₂O emissions. Nitrate leaching data were available for three sites in the United States representing nine different combinations of fertilizer amendments. Linear regressions of simulated vs. observed emission and leaching data yielded correlation coefficients of 0.89 and 0.94 for annual N₂O emissions and NO₃⁻ leaching, respectively. This comparison demonstrates that DAYCENT provides relatively high predictive capability for N₂O emissions and NO₃⁻ leaching, and is an improvement over the IPCC Tier 1 method (see additional information in Annex 3.11).

Figure 6-7: Comparison of Measured Emissions at Field Sites and Modeled Emissions Using the DAYCENT Simulation Model

Recalculations Discussion

Two major revisions were made in the Agricultural Soil Management section for the current Inventory.

First, the methodology used to estimate grassland areas was updated and revised to be consistent with the Land Representation used in the Land Use, Land Use Change and Forestry sector (see Section 7.1). This led to an overall decrease in grassland area, and lower emissions than reported in the prior Inventory. Second, the methodology used to calculate livestock manure N was changed such that total manure N added to soils increased by approximately 11 percent (see Section 6.2 for details).

The recalculations had opposite impacts on the emissions, with less grassland area tending to decrease emissions and higher manure N inputs tending to increase emissions. In some years emissions were higher overall, but on average, these changes led to a lower amount of N₂O emissions from agricultural soil management by about 1.5 percent over the time series relative to the previous Inventory.

Planned Improvements

A key improvement is underway for Agricultural Soil Management to incorporate more land-use survey data from the NRI (USDA 2000a) into the DAYCENT simulation analysis, beyond the area estimates for rangeland and pasture that are currently used to estimate emissions from grasslands. NRI has a record of land-use activities since 1979 for all U.S. agricultural land, which is estimated at about 386 Mha. NASS is used as the basis for land-use records in the current Inventory, and there are three major disadvantages to this dataset. First, most crops are grown in rotation with other crops (e.g., corn-soybean), but NASS data provide no information regarding rotation histories. In contrast, NRI is designed to track rotation histories, which is important because emissions from any particular year can be influenced by the crop that was grown the previous year. Second, NASS does not conduct a complete survey of cropland area each year, leading to gaps in the land base. NRI provides a complete history of cropland areas for four out of every five years from 1979 to 1997, and then every year after 1998. Third, the current inventory based on NASS does not quantify the influence of land-use change on emissions, which can be addressed using the NRI survey records. NRI also provides additional information on pasture land management that can be incorporated into the analysis (particularly the use of irrigation). Using NRI data will also make the Agricultural Soil Management methods more consistent with the methods used to estimate C stock changes for agricultural soils. The structure of model input files that contain land management data are currently being extensively revised to facilitate use of the annualized NRI data. This improvement is planned for completion by the next Inventory.

Another improvement is to reconcile the amount of crop residues burned with the Field Burning of Agricultural Residues source category (Section 6.5). This year the methodology for Field Burning of Agricultural Residues was significantly updated, but the changes were implemented too late for the new estimates of crop residues burned to be incorporated into the DAYCENT runs for the Agricultural Soil Management source. Next year the estimates will be reconciled; meanwhile the estimates presented in this section use the previous year's methodology for determining crop residues burned.

Other planned improvements are minor but will lead to more accurate estimates, including updating DAYMET weather data for more recent years following the release of new data, and using a rice-crop-specific emission factor for N amendments to rice areas.

6.5. Field Burning of Agricultural Residues (IPCC Source Category 4F)

Farming activities produce large quantities of agricultural crop residues, and farmers use or dispose of these residues in a variety of ways. For example, agricultural residues can be left on or plowed into the field; composted and then applied to soils; landfilled; or burned in the field. Alternatively, they can be collected and used as fuel, animal bedding material, supplemental animal feed, or construction material. Field burning of crop residues is not considered a net source of CO₂, because the C released to the atmosphere as CO₂ during burning is assumed to be reabsorbed during the next growing season. Crop residue burning is, however, a net source of CH₄, N₂O, CO, and NO_x, which are released during combustion.

Field burning is not a common method of agricultural residue disposal in the United States. The primary crop types whose residues are typically burned in the United States are corn, cotton, lentils, rice, soybeans, sugarcane, and wheat (McCarty 2009). In 2009, CH₄ and N₂O emissions from field burning were 0.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (12 Gg) and 0.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.3 Gg), respectively. Annual emissions from this source over the period 1990 to 2009 have remained

relatively constant, averaging approximately 0.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1 Gg) of CH₄ and 0.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.3 Gg) of N₂O (see Table 6-20 and Table 6-21).

Table 6-20: CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Field Burning of Agricultural Residues (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Crop Type	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CH₄	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2
Corn	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Cotton	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Lentils	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Rice	+	+	+	+	0.1	+	+
Soybeans	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Sugarcane	0.1	0.1	+	0.1	+	+	+
Wheat	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
N₂O	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Corn	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Cotton	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Lentils	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Rice	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Soybeans	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Sugarcane	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Wheat	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4

+ Less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 6-21: CH₄, N₂O, CO, and NO_x Emissions from Field Burning of Agricultural Residues (Gg)

Gas/Crop Type	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CH₄	13	12	9	11	11	13	12
Corn	1	1	1	2	1	1	2
Cotton	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Lentils	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Rice	2	2	2	2	3	2	2
Soybeans	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Sugarcane	3	2	1	3	1	2	2
Wheat	6	6	4	4	5	6	5
N₂O	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Corn	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Cotton	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Lentils	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Rice	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Soybeans	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Sugarcane	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Wheat	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
CO	268	259	184	233	237	270	247
NO_x	8	8	6	7	8	8	8

+ Less than 0.5 Gg

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

The Tier 2 methodology used for estimating greenhouse gas emissions from field burning of agricultural residues in the United States is consistent with IPCC (2006) (for more details, see Box 6-2). In order to estimate the amounts of C and N released during burning, the following equation was used:

$$\text{C or N released} = \sum \text{over all crop types and states (Area Burned} \div \text{Crop Area Harvested} \times \text{Crop Production} \times$$

$$\text{Residue/Crop Ratio} \times \text{Dry Matter Fraction} \times \text{Burning Efficiency} \times \text{Combustion Efficiency} \times \text{Fraction of C or N}$$

where,

Area Burned	= Total area of crop burned, by state
Crop Area Harvested	= Total area of crop harvested, by state
Crop Production	= Annual production of crop in Gg, by state
Residue/Crop Ratio	= Amount of residue produced per unit of crop production, by state
Dry Matter Fraction	= Amount of dry matter per unit of biomass for a crop
Fraction of C or N	= Amount of C or N per unit of dry matter for a crop
Burning Efficiency	= The proportion of prefire fuel biomass consumed ¹⁵¹
Combustion Efficiency	= The proportion of C or N released with respect to the total amount of C or N available in the burned material, respectively ¹⁵¹

Crop production and area harvested were available by state and year from USDA (2010) for all crops (except rice in Florida and Oklahoma, as detailed below). The amount C or N released was used in the following equation to determine the CH₄, CO, N₂O and NO_x emissions from the field burning of agricultural residues:

$$\text{CH}_4 \text{ and CO, or N}_2\text{O and NO}_x \text{ Emissions from Field Burning of Agricultural Residues} = (\text{C or N Released}) \times (\text{Emissions Ratio for C or N}) \times (\text{Conversion Factor})$$

where,

Emissions Ratio	= g CH ₄ -C or CO-C/g C released, or g N ₂ O-N or NO _x -N/g N released
Conversion Factor	= conversion, by molecular weight ratio, of CH ₄ -C to C (16/12), or CO-C to C (28/12), or N ₂ O-N to N (44/28), or NO _x -N to N (30/14)

[BEGIN BOX]

Box 6-2: Comparison of Tier 2 U.S. Inventory Approach and IPCC (2006) Default Approach

This Inventory calculates emissions from Burning of Agricultural Residues using a Tier 2 methodology that is based on IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997) and incorporates crop- and country-specific emission factors and variables. The equation used in this Inventory varies slightly in form from the one presented in the IPCC (2006) guidelines, but both equations rely on the same underlying variables. The IPCC (2006) equation was developed to be broadly applicable to all types of biomass burning, and, thus, is not specific to agricultural residues. IPCC (2006) default factors are provided only for four crops (wheat, corn, rice, and sugarcane), while this Inventory analyzes emissions from seven crops. A comparison of the methods and factors used in (1) the current Inventory and (2) the default IPCC (2006) approach was undertaken to determine the magnitude of the difference in overall estimates resulting from the two approaches. The IPCC (2006) approach was not used because crop-specific emission factors for N₂O were not available for all crops. In order to maintain consistency of methodology, the IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997) approach presented in the Methodology section was used.

The IPCC (2006) default approach resulted in 12 percent higher emissions of CH₄ and 25 percent higher emissions of N₂O than the current estimates in this Inventory. It is reasonable to maintain the current methodology, since the IPCC (2006) defaults are only available for four crops and are worldwide average estimates, while current inventory estimates are based on U.S.-specific, crop-specific, published data.

[END BOX]

¹⁵¹ In IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997), the equation for C or N released contains the variable ‘fraction oxidized in burning.’ This variable is equivalent to (burning efficiency × combustion efficiency).

Crop production data for all crops except rice in Florida and Oklahoma were taken from USDA's QuickStats service (USDA 2010). Rice production and area data for Florida and Oklahoma, which are not collected by USDA, were estimated separately. Average primary and ratoon crop yields for Florida (Schueneman and Deren 2002) were applied to Florida acreages (Schueneman 1999, 2001; Deren 2002; Kirstein 2003, 2004; Cantens 2004, 2005; Gonzalez 2007 through 2010), and crop yields for Arkansas (USDA 2010) were applied to Oklahoma acreages¹⁵² (Lee 2003 through 2006; Anderson 2008 through 2010). The production data for the crop types whose residues are burned are presented in Table 6-22. Crop weight by bushel was obtained from Murphy (1993).

The fraction of crop area burned was calculated using data on area burned by crop type and state¹⁵³ from McCarty (2010) for corn, cotton, lentils, rice, soybeans, sugarcane, and wheat.¹⁵⁴ McCarty (2010) used remote sensing data from Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) to estimate area burned by crop. For the inventory analysis, the state-level area burned data were divided by state-level crop area harvested data to estimate the percent of crop area burned by crop and by state. The average fraction of area burned by crop across all states is shown in Table 6-23. All crop area harvested data were from USDA (2010), except for rice acreage in Florida and Oklahoma, which is not measured by USDA (Schueneman 1999, 2001; Deren 2002; Kirstein 2003, 2004; Cantens 2004, 2005; Gonzalez 2007 through 2010; Lee 2003 through 2006; Anderson 2008 through 2010). Data on crop area burned were only available from McCarty (2010) for the years 2003 through 2007. For other years in the time series, the percent area burned was assumed to be equal to the average percent area burned from the 5 years for which data were available. This average was taken at the crop and state level. Table 6-23 shows these percent area estimates aggregated for the United States as a whole, at the crop level.

All residue/crop product mass ratios except sugarcane and cotton were obtained from Strehler and Stützel (1987). The datum for sugarcane is from Kinoshita (1988) and that of cotton from Huang et al. (2007). The residue/crop ratio for lentils was assumed to be equal to the average of the values for peas and beans. Residue dry matter fractions for all crops except soybeans, lentils, and cotton were obtained from Turn et al. (1997). Soybean and lentil dry matter fractions were obtained from Strehler and Stützel (1987); the value for lentil residue was assumed to equal the value for bean straw. The cotton dry matter fraction was taken from Huang et al. (2007). The residue C contents and N contents for all crops except soybeans and cotton are from Turn et al. (1997). The residue C content for soybeans is the IPCC default (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). The N content of soybeans is from Barnard and Kristoferson (1985). The C and N contents of lentils were assumed to equal those of soybeans. The C and N contents of cotton are from Lachnicht et al. (2004). These data are listed in Table 6-24. The burning efficiency was assumed to be 93 percent, and the combustion efficiency was assumed to be 88 percent, for all crop types, except sugarcane (EPA 1994). For sugarcane, the burning efficiency was assumed to be 81 percent (Kinoshita 1988) and the combustion efficiency was assumed to be 68 percent (Turn et al. 1997). Emission ratios and conversion factors for all gases (see Table 6-25) were taken from the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

Table 6-22: Agricultural Crop Production (Gg of Product)

Crop	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Corn ^a	201,534	251,854	282,263	267,503	331,177	307,142	333,011
Cotton	3,376	3,742	5,201	4,700	4,182	2,790	2,654
Lentils	40	137	238	147	166	109	266
Rice	7,114	8,705	10,132	8,843	9,033	9,272	9,972
Soybeans	52,416	75,055	83,507	87,001	72,859	80,749	91,417
Sugarcane	25,525	32,763	24,137	26,820	27,188	25,041	27,608
Wheat	74,292	60,641	57,243	49,217	55,821	68,016	60,366

^a Corn for grain (i.e., excludes corn for silage).

¹⁵² Rice production yield data are not available for Oklahoma, so the Arkansas values are used as a proxy.

¹⁵³ Alaska and Hawaii were excluded.

¹⁵⁴ McCarty (2009) also examined emissions from burning of Kentucky bluegrass and a general "other crops/fallow" category, but USDA crop area and production data were insufficient to estimate emissions from these crops using the methodology employed in the Inventory. McCarty (2009) estimates that approximately 18 percent of crop residue emissions result from burning of the Kentucky bluegrass and "other" categories.

Table 6-23: U.S. Average Percent Crop Area Burned by Crop (Percent)

State	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Corn	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Cotton	1	1	1	1	1	2	1
Lentils	3	2	+	2	1	1	1
Rice	10	10	6	8	12	9	9
Soybeans	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Sugarcane	59	40	26	56	26	39	37
Wheat	3	3	2	3	3	3	3

+ Less than 0.5 percent

Table 6-24: Key Assumptions for Estimating Emissions from Field Burning of Agricultural Residues

Crop	Residue/Crop Ratio	Dry Matter Fraction	C Fraction	N Fraction	Burning Efficiency (Fraction)	Combustion Efficiency (Fraction)
Corn	1.0	0.91	0.448	0.006	0.93	0.88
Cotton	1.6	0.90	0.445	0.012	0.93	0.88
Lentils	2.0	0.85	0.450	0.023	0.93	0.88
Rice	1.4	0.91	0.381	0.007	0.93	0.88
Soybeans	2.1	0.87	0.450	0.023	0.93	0.88
Sugarcane	0.2	0.62	0.424	0.004	0.81	0.68
Wheat	1.3	0.93	0.443	0.006	0.93	0.88

Table 6-25: Greenhouse Gas Emission Ratios and Conversion Factors

Gas	Emission Ratio	Conversion Factor
CH ₄ :C	0.005 ^a	16/12
CO:C	0.060 ^a	28/12
N ₂ O:N	0.007 ^b	44/28
NO _x :N	0.121 ^b	30/14

^a Mass of C compound released (units of C) relative to mass of total C released from burning (units of C).^b Mass of N compound released (units of N) relative to mass of total N released from burning (units of N).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Due to data and time limitations, uncertainty resulting from the fact that emissions from burning of Kentucky bluegrass and “other” residues are not included in the emissions estimates was not incorporated into the uncertainty analysis. The results of the Tier 2 Monte Carlo uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 6-26. Methane emissions from field burning of agricultural residues in 2009 were estimated to be between 0.15 and 0.35 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 40 percent below and 42 percent above the 2009 emission estimate of 0.25 Tg CO₂ Eq. Also at the 95 percent confidence level, N₂O emissions were estimated to be between 0.07 and 0.14 Tg CO₂ Eq. (or approximately 30 percent below and 31 percent above the 2009 emission estimate of 0.10 Tg CO₂ Eq.).

Table 6-26: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Field Burning of Agricultural Residues (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a (%)			
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	CH ₄	0.25	0.15	0.35	-40%	+42%
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	N ₂ O	0.10	0.07	0.14	-30%	+31%

^aRange of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990

through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A source-specific QA/QC plan for field burning of agricultural residues was implemented. This effort included a Tier 1 analysis, as well as portions of a Tier 2 analysis. The Tier 2 procedures focused on comparing trends across years, states, and crops to attempt to identify any outliers or inconsistencies. For some crops and years in Florida and Oklahoma, the total area burned as measured by McCarty (2010) was greater than the area estimated for that crop, year, and state by USDA (2010), leading to a percent area burned estimate of greater than 100 percent. In such cases, it was assumed that the percent crop area burned for that state was 100 percent.

Recalculations Discussion

The methodology over the entire time series was revised relative to the previous Inventory to incorporate state- and crop-level data on area burned from McCarty (2010). (1) Cotton and lentils were added as crops; peanuts and barley were removed, because McCarty (2009) indicated that their residues are not burned in significant quantities in the United States; (2) fraction of residue burned was calculated at the state and crop level based on McCarty (2010) and USDA (2010) data, rather than a blanket application of 3 percent burned for all crops except rice and sugarcane, as was used in the previous Inventory; (3) since data from McCarty (2010) were only available for 5 years, the percent area burned for those 5 years was averaged by crop and state and used as an estimate for the remaining years in the time series. Because the percent area burned was lower than previously assumed for almost all crops, these recalculations have resulted in an average decrease in CH₄ emissions of 71 percent and an average decrease in N₂O emissions of 79 percent across the time series, relative to the previous Inventory.

Planned Improvements

Further investigation will be made into inconsistent data from Florida and Oklahoma as mentioned in the QA/QC and verification section, and attempts will be made to revise or further justify the assumption of 100 percent of area burned for those crops and years where the estimated percent area burned exceeded 100 percent. The availability of useable area harvested and other data for bluegrass and the “other crops” category in McCarty (2010) will also be investigated, in order to try to incorporate these emissions into the Inventory.

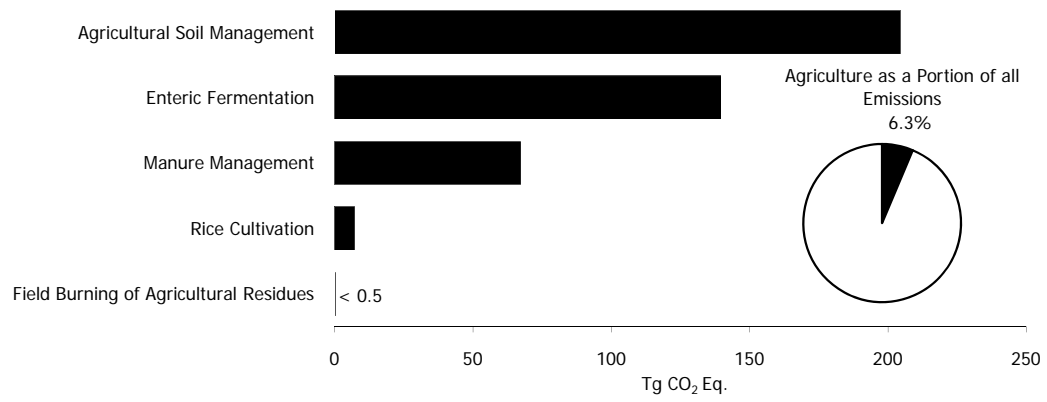
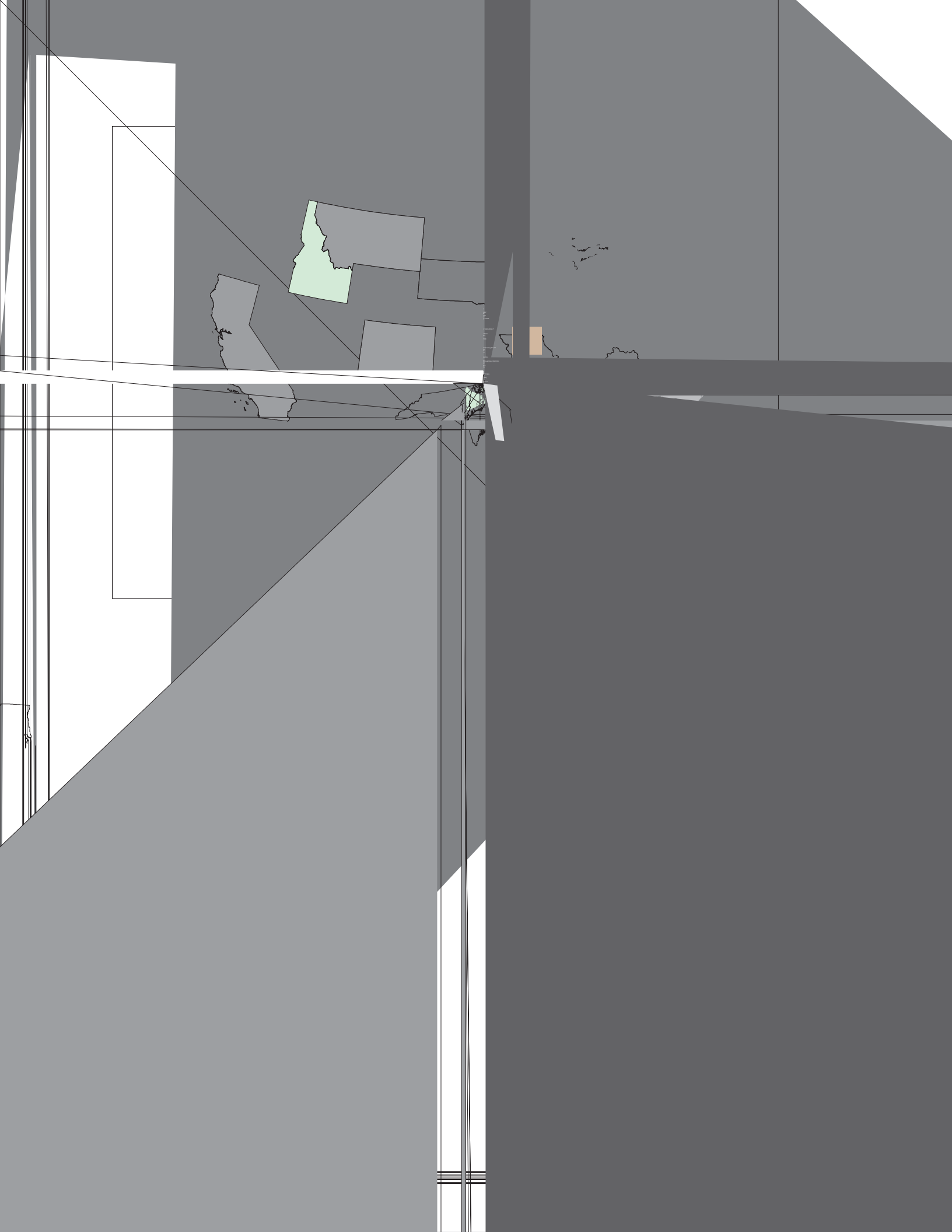
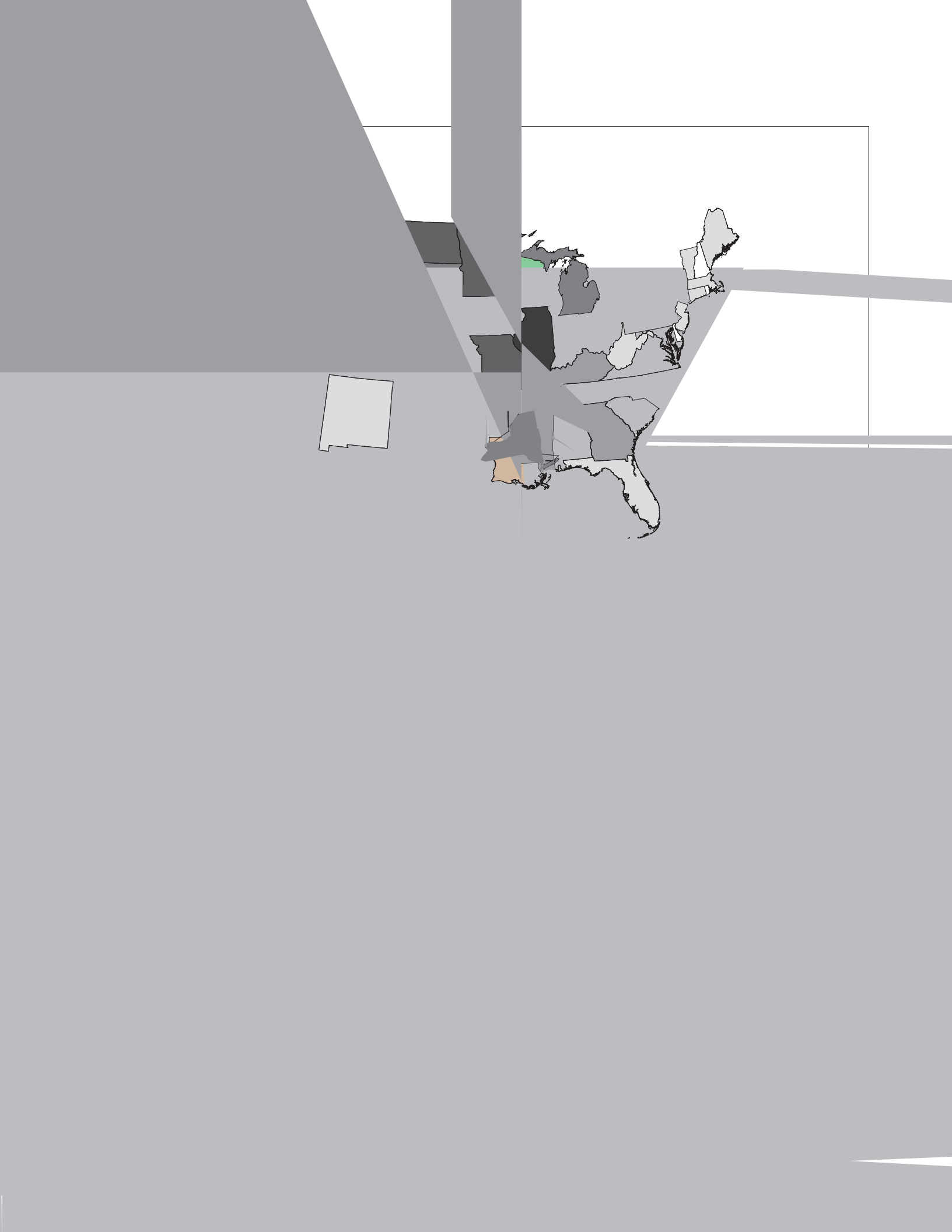


Figure 6-1: 2009 Agriculture Chapter Greenhouse Gas Sources





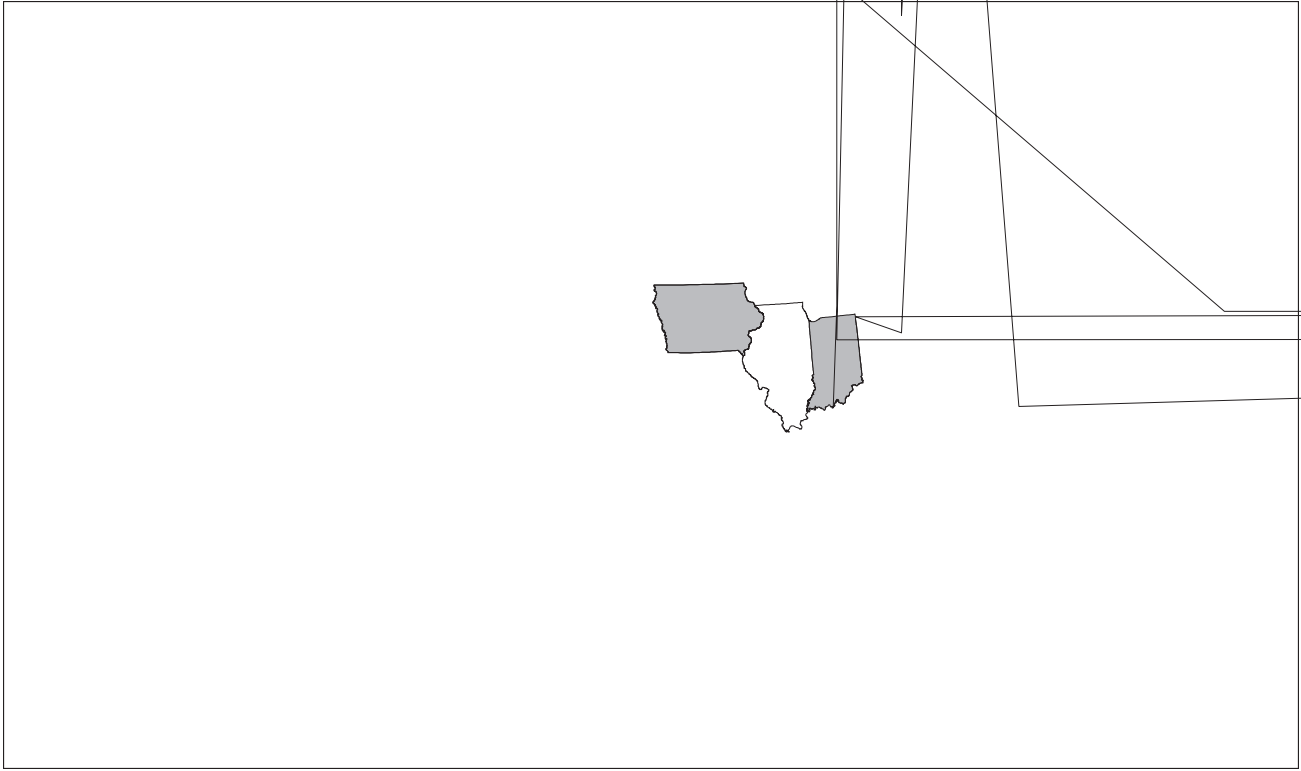
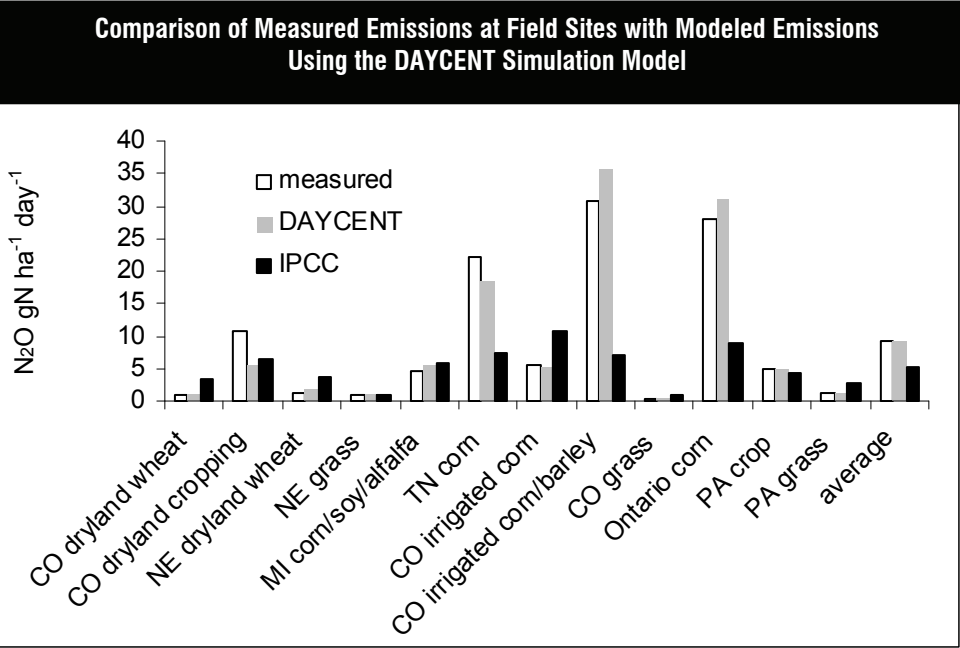


Figure 6-7



7. Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry

This chapter provides an assessment of the net greenhouse gas flux¹⁵⁵ resulting from the uses and changes in land types and forests in the United States. The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change *2006 Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006) recommends reporting fluxes according to changes within and conversions between certain land-use types termed forest land, cropland, grassland, and settlements (as well as wetlands). The greenhouse gas flux from *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* is reported using estimates of changes in forest carbon (C) stocks, non-carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions from forest fires, and the application of synthetic fertilizers to forest soils. The greenhouse gas flux reported in this chapter from agricultural lands (i.e., cropland and grassland) includes changes in organic C stocks in mineral and organic soils due to land use and management, and emissions of CO₂ due to the application of crushed limestone and dolomite to managed land (i.e., soil liming) and urea fertilization. Fluxes are reported for four agricultural land use/land-use change categories: *Cropland Remaining Cropland*, *Land Converted to Cropland*, *Grassland Remaining Grassland*, and *Land Converted to Grassland*. Fluxes resulting from *Settlements Remaining Settlements* include those from urban trees and soil fertilization. Landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps are accounted for separately under *Other*.

The estimates in this chapter, with the exception of CO₂ fluxes from wood products and urban trees, and CO₂ emissions from liming and urea fertilization, are based on activity data collected at multiple-year intervals, which are in the form of forest, land-use, and municipal solid waste surveys. CO₂ fluxes from forest C stocks (except the wood product components) and from agricultural soils (except the liming component) are calculated on an average annual basis from data collected in intervals ranging from 1 to 10 years. The resulting annual averages are applied to years between surveys. Calculations of non-CO₂ emissions from forest fires are based on forest CO₂ flux data. For the landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps source, periodic solid waste survey data were interpolated so that annual storage estimates could be derived. This flux has been applied to the entire time series, and periodic U.S. census data on changes in urban area have been used to develop annual estimates of CO₂ flux.

Land use, land-use change, and forestry activities in 2009 resulted in a net C sequestration of 1,015.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (276.8 Tg C) (Table 7-1 and Table 7-2). This represents an offset of approximately 15.3 percent of total U.S. CO₂ emissions. Total land use, land-use change, and forestry net C sequestration¹⁵⁶ increased by approximately 17.8 percent between 1990 and 2009. This increase was primarily due to an increase in the rate of net C accumulation in forest C stocks. Net C accumulation in *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land*, *Land Converted to Grassland*, and *Settlements Remaining Settlements* increased, while net C accumulation in *Cropland Remaining Cropland*, *Grassland Remaining Grassland*, and landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps slowed over this period. Emissions from *Land Converted to Cropland* increased between 1990 and 2009.

Table 7-1: Net CO₂ Flux from Carbon Stock Changes in Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Sink Category	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land ¹	(681.1)	(378.3)	(911.5)	(917.5)	(911.9)	(891.0)	(863.1)
Cropland Remaining Cropland	(29.4)	(30.2)	(18.3)	(19.1)	(19.7)	(18.1)	(17.4)
Land Converted to Cropland	2.2	2.4	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9
Grassland Remaining Grassland							
Grassland	(52.2)	(52.6)	(8.9)	(8.8)	(8.6)	(8.5)	(8.3)
Land Converted to Grassland	(19.8)	(27.2)	(24.4)	(24.2)	(24.0)	(23.8)	(23.6)
Settlements Remaining Settlements ²							
Settlements	(57.1)	(77.5)	(87.8)	(89.8)	(91.9)	(93.9)	(95.9)
Other (Landfilled Yard Trimmings and Food Scraps)	(24.2)	(13.2)	(11.5)	(11.0)	(10.9)	(11.2)	(12.6)
Total	(861.5)	(576.6)	(1,056.5)	(1,064.3)	(1,060.9)	(1,040.5)	(1,015.1)

Note: Parentheses indicate net sequestration. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

¹⁵⁵ The term “flux” is used here to encompass both emissions of greenhouse gases to the atmosphere, and removal of C from the atmosphere. Removal of C from the atmosphere is also referred to as “carbon sequestration.”

¹⁵⁶ Carbon sequestration estimates are net figures. The C stock in a given pool fluctuates due to both gains and losses. When losses exceed gains, the C stock decreases, and the pool acts as a source. When gains exceed losses, the C stock increases, and the pool acts as a sink. This is also referred to as net C sequestration.

¹ Estimates include C stock changes on both *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* and *Land Converted to Forest Land*.

² Estimates include C stock changes on both *Settlements Remaining Settlements* and *Land Converted to Settlements*.

Table 7-2: Net CO₂ Flux from Carbon Stock Changes in Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Tg C)

Sink Category	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land ¹	(185.7)	(103.2)	(248.6)	(250.2)	(248.7)	(243.0)	(235.4)
Cropland Remaining Cropland	(8.0)	(8.2)	(5.0)	(5.2)	(5.4)	(4.9)	(4.7)
Land Converted to Cropland	0.6	0.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6
Grassland Remaining							
Grassland	(14.2)	(14.3)	(2.4)	(2.4)	(2.3)	(2.3)	(2.3)
Land Converted to Grassland	(5.4)	(7.4)	(6.7)	(6.6)	(6.5)	(6.5)	(6.4)
Settlements Remaining							
Settlements ²	(15.6)	(21.1)	(23.9)	(24.5)	(25.1)	(25.6)	(26.2)
Other (Landfilled Yard Trimmings and Food Scraps)	(6.6)	(3.6)	(3.1)	(3.0)	(3.0)	(3.1)	(3.4)
Total	(235.0)	(157.3)	(288.1)	(290.3)	(289.3)	(283.8)	(276.8)

Note: 1 Tg C = 1 teragram C = 1 million metric tons C. Parentheses indicate net sequestration. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

¹ Estimates include C stock changes on both *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* and *Land Converted to Forest Land*.

² Estimates include C stock changes on both *Settlements Remaining Settlements* and *Land Converted to Settlements*.

Emissions from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry are shown in Table 7-3 and Table 7-4. Liming of agricultural soils and urea fertilization in 2009 resulted in CO₂ emissions of 4.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (4,221 Gg) and 3.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. (3,612 Gg), respectively. Lands undergoing peat extraction (i.e., *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands*) resulted in CO₂ emissions of 1.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1,090 Gg), and nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions of less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq. The application of synthetic fertilizers to forest soils in 2009 resulted in direct N₂O emissions of 0.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1 Gg). Direct N₂O emissions from fertilizer application to forest soils have increased by 455 percent since 1990, but still account for a relatively small portion of overall emissions. Additionally, direct N₂O emissions from fertilizer application to settlement soils in 2009 accounted for 1.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (5 Gg) in 2009. This represents an increase of 55 percent since 1990. Forest fires in 2009 resulted in methane (CH₄) emissions of 7.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (372 Gg), and in N₂O emissions of 6.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (21 Gg).

Table 7-3: Emissions from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Source Category	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO₂	8.1	8.8	8.9	8.8	9.2	9.6	8.9
Cropland Remaining Cropland:							
Liming of Agricultural Soils	4.7	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.5	5.0	4.2
Urea Fertilization	2.4	3.2	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.6	3.6
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands:							
Peatlands Remaining Peatlands	1.0	1.2	1.1	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1
CH₄	3.2	14.3	9.8	21.6	20.0	11.9	7.8
Forest Land Remaining Forest							
Land: Forest Fires	3.2	14.3	9.8	21.6	20.0	11.9	7.8
N₂O	3.7	13.2	9.8	19.5	18.3	11.6	8.3
Forest Land Remaining Forest							
Land: Forest Fires	2.6	11.7	8.0	17.6	16.3	9.8	6.4
Forest Land Remaining Forest							
Land: Forest Soils ¹	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Settlements Remaining							
Settlements: Settlement Soils ²	1.0	1.1	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.5
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands:							
Peatlands Remaining Peatlands	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	15.0	36.3	28.6	49.8	47.5	33.2	25.0

+ Less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: These estimates include direct emissions only. Indirect N₂O emissions are reported in the Agriculture chapter. Totals may

not sum due to independent rounding.

¹ Estimates include emissions from N fertilizer additions on both *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land*, and *Land Converted to Forest Land*, but not from land-use conversion.

² Estimates include emissions from N fertilizer additions on both *Settlements Remaining Settlements*, and *Land Converted to Settlements*, but not from land-use conversion.

Table 7-4: Emissions from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Gg)

Source Category	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO₂	8,117	8,768	8,933	8,754	9,214	9,646	8,922
Cropland Remaining Cropland:							
Liming of Agricultural Soils	4,667	4,328	4,349	4,220	4,464	5,042	4,221
Urea Fertilization	2,417	3,214	3,504	3,656	3,738	3,612	3,612
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands:							
Peatlands Remaining Peatlands	1,033	1,227	1,079	879	1,012	992	1,090
CH₄	152	682	467	1,027	953	569	372
Forest Land Remaining Forest							
Land: Forest Fires	152	682	467	1,027	953	569	372
N₂O	12	43	32	63	59	37	27
Forest Land Remaining Forest							
Land: Forest Fires	8	38	26	57	53	31	21
Forest Land Remaining Forest							
Land: Forest Soils ¹	+	1	1	1	1	1	1
Settlements Remaining							
Settlements: Settlement Soils ²	3	4	5	5	5	5	5
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands:							
Peatlands Remaining Peatlands	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

+ Less than 0.5 Gg

Note: These estimates include direct emissions only. Indirect N₂O emissions are reported in the Agriculture chapter. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

¹ Estimates include emissions from N fertilizer additions on both *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land*, and *Land Converted to Forest Land*, but not from land-use conversion.

² Estimates include emissions from N fertilizer additions on both *Settlements Remaining Settlements*, and *Land Converted to Settlements*, but not from land-use conversion.

[BEGIN BOX]

Box 7-1: Methodological approach for estimating and reporting U.S. emissions and sinks

In following the UNFCCC requirement under Article 4.1 to develop and submit national greenhouse gas emissions inventories, the emissions and sinks presented in this report are organized by source and sink categories and calculated using internationally-accepted methods provided by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC).¹⁵⁷ Additionally, the calculated emissions and sinks in a given year for the U.S. are presented in a common manner in line with the UNFCCC reporting guidelines for the reporting of inventories under this international agreement.¹⁵⁸ The use of consistent methods to calculate emissions and sinks by all nations providing their inventories to the UNFCCC ensures that these reports are comparable. In this regard, U.S. emissions and sinks reported in this inventory report are comparable to emissions and sinks reported by other countries. Emissions and sinks provided in this inventory do not preclude alternative examinations, but rather this inventory report presents emissions and sinks in a common format consistent with how countries are to report inventories under the UNFCCC. The report itself follows this standardized format, and provides an explanation of the IPCC methods used to calculate emissions and sinks, and the manner in which those calculations are conducted.

[END BOX]

¹⁵⁷ See <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/public/index.html>.

¹⁵⁸ See http://unfccc.int/national_reports/annex_i_ghg_inventories/national_inventories_submissions/items/5270.php.

7.1. Representation of the U.S. Land Base

A national land-use categorization system that is consistent and complete both temporally and spatially is needed in order to assess land use and land-use change status and the associated greenhouse gas fluxes over the inventory time series. This system should be consistent with IPCC (2006), such that all countries reporting on national greenhouse gas fluxes to the UNFCCC should (1) describe the methods and definitions used to determine areas of managed and unmanaged lands in the country, (2) describe and apply a consistent set of definitions for land-use categories over the entire national land base and time series associated with the greenhouse gas inventory, such that increases in the land areas within particular land-use categories are balanced by decreases in the land areas of other categories, and (3) account for greenhouse gas fluxes on all managed lands. The implementation of such a system helps to ensure that estimates of greenhouse gas fluxes are as accurate as possible. This section of the Inventory has been developed in order to comply with this guidance.

Multiple databases are used to track land management in the United States, which are also used as the basis to classify U.S. land area into the six IPCC land-use categories (i.e., *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land*, *Cropland Remaining Cropland*, *Grassland Remaining Grassland*, *Wetlands Remaining Wetlands*, *Settlements Remaining Settlements* and *Other Land Remaining Other Land*) and thirty land-use change categories (e.g., *Cropland Converted to Forest Land*, *Grassland Converted to Forest Land*, *Wetlands Converted to Forest Land*, *Settlements Converted to Forest Land*, *Other Land Converted to Forest Lands*)¹⁵⁹ (IPCC 2006). The primary databases are the U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) National Resources Inventory (NRI)¹⁶⁰ and the USDA Forest Service (USFS) Forest Inventory and Analysis (FIA)¹⁶¹ Database. The U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) National Land Cover Dataset (NLCD)¹⁶² is also used to identify land uses in regions that were not included in the NRI or FIA. The total land area included in the U.S. Inventory is 786 million hectares, and this entire land base is considered managed.¹⁶³ In 2009, the United States had a total of 274 million hectares of Forest Land (a 4 percent increase since 1990), 163 million hectares of Cropland (down 4.4 percent since 1990), 258 million hectares of Grassland (down 4.2 percent since 1990), 26 million hectares of Wetlands (down 4.9 percent since 1990), 49 million hectares of Settlements (up 24.5 percent since 1990), and 14 million hectares of Other Land. It is important to note that the land base formally classified for the Inventory (see Table 7-5) is considered managed. Alaska is not formally included in the current land representation, but there is a planned improvement underway to include this portion of the United States in future inventories. In addition, wetlands are not differentiated between managed and unmanaged, although some wetlands would be unmanaged according to the U.S. definition (see definition later in this section). Future improvements will include a differentiation between managed and unmanaged wetlands. In addition, carbon stock changes are not currently estimated for the entire land base, which leads to discrepancies between the area data presented here and in the subsequent sections of the NIR. Planned improvements are underway or in development phases to conduct an inventory of carbon stock changes on all managed land (e.g., federal grasslands).

Dominant land uses vary by region, largely due to climate patterns, soil types, geology, proximity to coastal regions, and historical settlement patterns, although all land-uses occur within each of the fifty states (Figure 7-1). Forest Land tends to be more common in the eastern states, mountainous regions of the western United States, and Alaska. Cropland is concentrated in the mid-continent region of the United States, and Grassland is more common in the western United States. Wetlands are fairly ubiquitous throughout the United States, though they are more common in the upper Midwest and eastern portions of the country. Settlements are more concentrated along the coastal margins and in the eastern states.

¹⁵⁹ Land-use category definitions are provided in the Methodology section.

¹⁶⁰ NRI data is available at <<http://www.ncgc.nrcs.usda.gov/products/nri/index.html>>.

¹⁶¹ FIA data is available at <<http://fia.fs.fed.us/tools-data/data/>>.

¹⁶² NLCD data is available at <<http://www.mrlc.gov/>>.

¹⁶³ The current land representation does not include areas from Alaska or U.S. territories, but there are planned improvements to include these regions in future reports.

Table 7-5: Size of Land Use and Land-Use Change Categories on Managed Land Area by Land Use and Land Use Change Categories (thousands of hectares)

Land Use & Land-Use Change Categories^a	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total Forest Land	263,878	268,790	271,322	272,107	272,891	273,677	274,462
FF	257,180	253,080	255,444	256,181	256,917	257,655	258,392
CF	1,266	2,793	2,976	2,983	2,991	2,998	3,006
GF	4,879	11,347	11,122	11,157	11,193	11,229	11,264
WF	63	201	205	205	206	207	207
SF	101	268	303	304	305	306	307
OF	389	1,102	1,273	1,276	1,279	1,282	1,285
Total Cropland	170,632	164,401	163,192	163,178	163,164	163,151	163,137
CC	155,433	144,004	145,531	145,518	145,506	145,493	145,481
FC	1,105	1,101	805	804	803	802	802
GC	13,298	17,834	15,513	15,513	15,513	15,512	15,512
WC	163	264	234	234	234	234	234
SC	470	886	825	825	825	825	825
OC	162	311	283	283	283	283	283
Total Grassland	269,643	263,092	260,565	260,012	259,458	258,904	258,350
GG	260,064	245,460	243,839	243,395	242,951	242,506	242,061
FG	1,463	3,048	2,787	2,773	2,759	2,745	2,730
CG	7,502	13,303	12,632	12,541	12,451	12,360	12,270
WG	230	373	339	338	338	337	336
SG	129	255	255	253	252	250	249
OG	255	653	714	712	709	706	704
Total Wetlands	27,788	27,560	27,173	26,983	26,793	26,603	26,412
WW	27,179	26,155	25,701	25,519	25,338	25,157	24,976
FW	138	378	401	398	395	393	390
CW	134	348	351	348	344	341	338
GW	286	633	675	672	670	668	665
SW	<1	3	3	3	3	3	3
OW	51	43	43	42	42	42	42
Total Settlements	39,518	47,558	49,247	49,238	49,229	49,220	49,212
SS	34,742	34,055	34,975	34,966	34,958	34,949	34,941
FS	1,842	5,480	5,872	5,872	5,872	5,871	5,871
CS	1,373	3,599	3,673	3,672	3,672	3,672	3,672
GS	1,498	4,183	4,479	4,479	4,479	4,479	4,479
WS	3	29	32	32	32	32	32
OS	60	212	217	217	217	217	217
Total Other Land	14,385	14,443	14,346	14,327	14,309	14,290	14,272
OO	13,397	12,286	12,104	12,087	12,069	12,051	12,033
FO	193	506	559	559	559	559	559
CO	279	440	499	499	499	499	499
GO	458	1,085	1,058	1,057	1,057	1,056	1,056
WO	55	115	114	114	114	114	113
SO	3	11	12	12	12	12	12
Grand Total	785,845	785,845	785,845	785,845	785,845	785,845	785,845

^aThe abbreviations are “F” for Forest Land, “C” for Cropland, “G” for Grassland, “W” for Wetlands, “S” for Settlements, and “O” for Other Lands. Lands remaining in the same land use category are identified with the land use abbreviation given twice (e.g., “FF” is Forest Land Remaining Forest Land), and land use change categories are identified with the previous land use abbreviation followed by the new land use abbreviation (e.g., “CF” is Cropland Converted to Forest Land).

Notes: All land areas reported in this table are considered managed. A planned improvement is underway to deal with an exception for wetlands which includes both managed and unmanaged lands based on the definitions for the current U.S. Land Representation Assessment. In addition, U.S. Territories have not been classified into land uses and are not included in the U.S. Land Representation Assessment. See Planned Improvements for discussion on plans to include Alaska and territories in future Inventories.

Figure 7-1. Percent of Total Land Area in the General Land-Use Categories for 2009

Methodology

IPCC Approaches for Representing Land Areas

IPCC (2006) describes three approaches for representing land areas. Approach 1 provides data on the total area for each individual land-use category, but does not provide detailed information on changes of area between categories and is not spatially explicit other than at the national or regional level. With Approach 1, total net conversions between categories can be detected, but not the individual changes between the land-use categories that led to those net changes. Approach 2 introduces tracking of individual land-use changes between the categories (e.g., Forest Land to Cropland, Cropland to Forest Land, Grassland to Cropland, etc.), using surveys or other forms of data that do not provide location data on specific parcels of land. Approach 3 extends Approach 2 by providing location data on specific parcels of land, such as maps, along with the land-use history. The three approaches are not presented as hierarchical tiers and are not mutually exclusive.

According to IPCC (2006), the approach or mix of approaches selected by an inventory agency should reflect calculation needs and national circumstances. For this analysis, the NRI, FIA, and the NLCD have been combined to provide a complete representation of land use for managed lands. These data sources are described in more detail later in this section. All of these datasets have a spatially-explicit time series of land-use data, and therefore Approach 3 is used to provide a full representation of land use in the U.S. Inventory. Lands are treated as remaining in the same category (e.g., *Cropland Remaining Cropland*) if a land-use change has not occurred in the last 20 years. Otherwise, the land is classified in a land-use-change category based on the current use and most recent use before conversion to the current use (e.g., *Cropland Converted to Forest Land*).

Definitions of Land Use in the United States

Managed and Unmanaged Land

The U.S. definitions of managed and unmanaged lands are similar to the basic IPCC (2006) definition of managed land, but with some additional elaboration to reflect national circumstances. Based on the following definitions, most lands in the United States are classified as managed:

- *Managed Land*: Land is considered managed if direct human intervention has influenced its condition. Direct intervention includes altering or maintaining the condition of the land to produce commercial or non-commercial products or services; to serve as transportation corridors or locations for buildings, landfills, or other developed areas for commercial or non-commercial purposes; to extract resources or facilitate acquisition of resources; or to provide social functions for personal, community or societal objectives. Managed land also includes legal protection of lands (e.g., wilderness, preserves, parks, etc.) for conservation purposes (i.e., meets societal objectives).¹⁶⁴
- *Unmanaged Land*: All other land is considered unmanaged. Unmanaged land is largely comprised of areas inaccessible to human intervention due to the remoteness of the locations, or lands with essentially no development interest or protection due to limited personal, commercial or social value. Though these lands may be influenced indirectly by human actions such as atmospheric deposition of chemical species

¹⁶⁴ Wetlands are an exception to this general definition, because these lands, as specified by IPCC (2006), are only considered managed if they are created through human activity, such as dam construction, or the water level is artificially altered by human activity. Distinguishing between managed and unmanaged wetlands is difficult, however, due to limited data availability. Wetlands are not characterized by use within the NRI. Therefore, unless wetlands are managed for cropland or grassland, it is not possible to know if they are artificially created or if the water table is managed based on the use of NRI data. See the Planned Improvements section of the Inventory for work being done to refine the Wetland area estimates.

produced in industry, they are not influenced by a direct human intervention.¹⁶⁵

Land-Use Categories

As with the definition of managed lands, IPCC (2006) provides general non-prescriptive definitions for the six main land-use categories: Forest Land, Cropland, Grassland, Wetlands, Settlements and Other Land. In order to reflect U.S. circumstances, country-specific definitions have been developed, based predominantly on criteria used in the land-use surveys for the United States. Specifically, the definition of Forest Land is based on the FIA definition of forest,¹⁶⁶ while definitions of Cropland, Grassland, and Settlements are based on the NRI.¹⁶⁷ The definitions for Other Land and Wetlands are based on the IPCC (2006) definitions for these categories.

- *Forest Land*: A land-use category that includes areas at least 36.6 m wide and 0.4 ha in size with at least 10 percent cover (or equivalent stocking) by live trees of any size, including land that formerly had such tree cover and that will be naturally or artificially regenerated. Forest land includes transition zones, such as areas between forest and non-forest lands that have at least 10 percent cover (or equivalent stocking) with live trees and forest areas adjacent to urban and built-up lands. Roadside, streamside, and shelterbelt strips of trees must have a crown width of at least 36.6 m and continuous length of at least 110.6 m to qualify as forest land. Unimproved roads and trails, streams, and clearings in forest areas are classified as forest if they are less than 36.6 m wide or 0.4 ha in size, otherwise they are excluded from Forest Land and classified as Settlements. Tree-covered areas in agricultural production settings, such as fruit orchards, or tree-covered areas in urban settings, such as city parks, are not considered forest land (Smith et al. 2009). NOTE: This definition applies to all U.S. lands and territories. However, at this time, data availability is limited for remote or inaccessible areas such as interior Alaska
- *Cropland*: A land-use category that includes areas used for the production of adapted crops for harvest; this category includes both cultivated and non-cultivated lands.¹⁶⁸ Cultivated crops include row crops or close-grown crops and also hay or pasture in rotation with cultivated crops. Non-cultivated cropland includes continuous hay, perennial crops (e.g., orchards) and horticultural cropland. Cropland also includes land with alley cropping and windbreaks,¹⁶⁹ as well as lands in temporary fallow or enrolled in conservation reserve programs (i.e., set-asides¹⁷⁰). Roads through Cropland, including interstate highways, state highways, other paved roads, gravel roads, dirt roads, and railroads are excluded from Cropland area estimates and are, instead, classified as Settlements.
- *Grassland*: A land-use category on which the plant cover is composed principally of grasses, grass-like plants, forbs, or shrubs suitable for grazing and browsing, and includes both pastures and native rangelands.¹⁷¹ This includes areas where practices such as clearing, burning, chaining, and/or chemicals are applied to maintain the grass vegetation. Savannas, some wetlands and deserts, in addition to tundra are considered Grassland.¹⁷² Woody plant communities of low forbs and shrubs, such as mesquite, chaparral, mountain shrub, and pinyon-juniper, are also classified as Grassland if they do not meet the criteria for Forest Land. Grassland includes land managed with agroforestry practices such as silvipasture and windbreaks, assuming the stand or woodlot does not meet the criteria for Forest Land. Roads through

¹⁶⁵ There will be some areas that qualify as Forest Land or Grassland according to the land use criteria, but are classified as unmanaged land due to the remoteness of their location.

¹⁶⁶ See <http://socrates.lv-hrc.nevada.edu/fia/ab/issues/pending/glossary/Glossary_5_30_06.pdf>.

¹⁶⁷ See <<http://www.nrcs.usda.gov/technical/land/nri01/glossary.html>>.

¹⁶⁸ A minor portion of Cropland occurs on federal lands, and is not currently included in the C stock change inventory. A planned improvement is underway to include these areas in future C inventories.

¹⁶⁹ Currently, there is no data source to account for biomass C stock change associated with woody plant growth and losses in alley cropping systems and windbreaks in cropping systems, although these areas are included in the cropland land base.

¹⁷⁰ A set-aside is cropland that has been taken out of active cropping and converted to some type of vegetative cover, including, for example, native grasses or trees.

¹⁷¹ Grasslands on federal lands are included in the managed land base, but C stock changes are not estimated on these lands. Federal grassland areas have been assumed to have negligible changes in C due to limited land use and management change, but planned improvements are underway to further investigate this issue and include these areas in future C inventories.

¹⁷² IPCC (2006) guidelines do not include provisions to separate desert and tundra as land categories.

Grassland, including interstate highways, state highways, other paved roads, gravel roads, dirt roads, and railroads are excluded from Grassland area estimates and are, instead, classified as Settlements.

- *Wetlands*: A land-use category that includes land covered or saturated by water for all or part of the year. Managed Wetlands are those where the water level is artificially changed, or were created by human activity. Certain areas that fall under the managed Wetlands definition are covered in other areas of the IPCC guidance and/or the inventory, including Cropland (e.g., rice cultivation), Grassland, and Forest Land (including drained or undrained forested wetlands).
- *Settlements*: A land-use category representing developed areas consisting of units of 0.25 acres (0.1 ha) or more that includes residential, industrial, commercial, and institutional land; construction sites; public administrative sites; railroad yards; cemeteries; airports; golf courses; sanitary landfills; sewage treatment plants; water control structures and spillways; parks within urban and built-up areas; and highways, railroads, and other transportation facilities. Also included are tracts of less than 10 acres (4.05 ha) that may meet the definitions for Forest Land, Cropland, Grassland, or Other Land but are completely surrounded by urban or built-up land, and so are included in the settlement category. Rural transportation corridors located within other land uses (e.g., Forest Land, Cropland) are also included in Settlements.
- *Other Land*: A land-use category that includes bare soil, rock, ice, non-settlement transportation corridors, and all land areas that do not fall into any of the other five land-use categories. It allows the total of identified land areas to match the managed national area.

Land-Use Data Sources: Description and Application to U.S. Land Area Classification

U.S. Land-Use Data Sources

The three main data sources for land area and use data in the United States are the NRI, FIA, and the NLCD. For the Inventory, the NRI is the official source of data on all land uses on non-federal lands (except forest land), and is also used as the resource to determine the total land base for the conterminous United States and Hawaii. The NRI is conducted by the USDA Natural Resources Conservation Service and is designed to assess soil, water, and related environmental resources on non-federal lands. The NRI has a stratified multi-stage sampling design, where primary sample units are stratified on the basis of county and township boundaries defined by the U.S. Public Land Survey (Nusser and Goebel 1997). Within a primary sample unit (typically a 160-acre [64.75 ha] square quarter-section), three sample points are selected according to a restricted randomization procedure. Each point in the survey is assigned an area weight (expansion factor) based on other known areas and land-use information (Nusser and Goebel 1997). The NRI survey utilizes data derived from remote sensing imagery and site visits in order to provide detailed information on land use and management, particularly for croplands and grasslands, and is used as the basis to account for C stock changes in agricultural lands (except federal Grasslands). The NRI survey was conducted every 5 years between 1982 and 1997, but shifted to annualized data collection in 1998. This Inventory incorporates data through 2003 from the NRI.

The FIA program, conducted by the USFS, is the official source of data on Forest Land area and management data for the Inventory. FIA engages in a hierarchical system of sampling, with sampling categorized as Phases 1 through 3, in which sample points for phases are subsets of the previous phase. Phase 1 refers to collection of remotely-sensed data (either aerial photographs or satellite imagery) primarily to classify land into forest or non-forest and to identify landscape patterns like fragmentation and urbanization. Phase 2 is the collection of field data on a network of ground plots that enable classification and summarization of area, tree, and other attributes associated with forest land uses. Phase 3 plots are a subset of Phase 2 plots where data on indicators of forest health are measured. Data from all three phases are also used to estimate C stock changes for forest land. Historically, FIA inventory surveys had been conducted periodically, with all plots in a state being measured at a frequency of every 5 to 14 years. A new national plot design and annual sampling design was introduced by FIA about ten years ago. Most states, though, have only recently been brought into this system. Annualized sampling means that a portion of plots throughout each state is sampled each year, with the goal of measuring all plots once every 5 years. See Annex 3.12 to see the specific survey data available by state. The most recent year of available data varies state by state (2002 through 2009).

Though NRI provides land-area data for both federal and non-federal lands, it only includes land-use data on non-federal lands, and FIA only records data for forest land.¹⁷³ Consequently, major gaps exist when the datasets are combined, such as federal grassland operated by the Bureau of Land Management (BLM), USDA, and National Park Service, as well as most of Alaska.¹⁷⁴ The NLCD is used as a supplementary database to account for land use on federal lands that are not included in the NRI and FIA databases. The NLCD land-cover classification scheme, available for 1992 and 2001, has been applied over the conterminous United States (Homer et al. 2007). The 2001 product also provides land use data that has been used for Hawaii federal lands. For this analysis, the NLCD Retrofit Land Cover Change Product was used in order to represent both land use and land-use change for federal lands in the conterminous U.S. (Homer et al. 2007). It is based primarily on Landsat Thematic Mapper imagery. The NLCD contains 21 categories of land-cover information, which have been aggregated into the IPCC land-use categories, and the data are available at a spatial resolution of 30 meters. The federal land portion of the NLCD was extracted from the dataset using the federal land area boundary map from the National Atlas (2005). This map represents federal land boundaries in 2005, so as part of the analysis, the federal land area was adjusted annually based on the NRI federal land area estimates (i.e., land is periodically transferred between federal and non-federal ownership). Consequently, the portion of the land base categorized with NLCD data varied from year to year, corresponding to an increase or decrease in the federal land base. The NLCD is strictly a source of land-cover information, however, and does not provide the necessary site conditions, crop types, and management information from which to estimate C stock changes on those lands.

Another step in the analysis is to address gaps as well as overlaps in the representation of the U.S. land base between the Agricultural Carbon Stock Inventory (*Cropland Remaining Cropland, Land Converted to Cropland, Grassland Remaining Grassland, Land Converted to Grassland*) and Forest Land Carbon Stock Inventory (*Forest Land Remaining Forest Land and Land Converted to Forest Land*), which are based on the NRI and FIA databases, respectively. NRI and FIA have different criteria for classifying forest land and sampling designs, leading to discrepancies in the resulting estimates of Forest Land area on non-federal land. Similarly, there are discrepancies between the NLCD and FIA data for defining and classifying Forest Land on federal lands. Moreover, dependence exists between the Forest Land area and the amount of land designated as other land uses in both the NRI and the NLCD, such as the amount of Grassland, Cropland, and Wetlands, relative to the Forest Land area. This results in inconsistencies among the three databases for estimated Forest Land area, as well as for the area estimates for other land-use categories. FIA is the main database for forest statistics, and consequently, the NRI and NLCD were adjusted to achieve consistency with FIA estimates of Forest Land. The adjustments were made at a state-scale, and it was assumed that the majority of the discrepancy in forest area was associated with an under- or over-prediction of Grassland and Wetland area in the NRI and NLCD due to differences in Forest Land definitions. Specifically, the Forest Land area for a given state according to the NRI and NLCD was adjusted to match the FIA estimates of Forest Land for non-federal and federal land, respectively. In a second step, corresponding increases or decreases were made in the area estimates of Grassland and Wetland from the NRI and NLCD, in order to balance the change in forest area, and therefore not change the overall amount of managed land within an individual state. The adjustments were based on the proportion of land within each of these land-use categories at the state-level. (i.e., a higher proportion of Grassland led to a larger adjustment in Grassland area).

As part of Quality Assurance /Quality Control (QA/QC), the land base derived from the NRI, FIA and NLCD was compared to the Topologically Integrated Geographic Encoding and Referencing (TIGER) survey (U.S. Census Bureau 2010). The U.S. Census Bureau gathers data on the U.S. population and economy, and has a database of land areas for the country. The land area estimates from the U.S. Census Bureau differ from those provided by the land-use surveys used in the Inventory because of discrepancies in the reporting approach for the census and the methods used in the NRI, FIA, and NLCD. The area estimates of land-use categories, based on NRI, FIA, and NLCD, are derived from remote sensing data instead of the land survey approach used by the U.S. Census Survey. More importantly, the U.S. Census Survey does not provide a time series of land-use change data or land management information, which is critical for conducting emission inventories and is provided from the NRI and FIA surveys. Consequently, the U.S. Census Survey was not adopted as the official land area estimate for the Inventory. Rather, the NRI data were adopted because this database provides full coverage of land area and land use

¹⁷³ FIA does collect some data on non-forest land use, but these are held in regional databases versus the national database. The status of these data is being investigated.

¹⁷⁴ The survey programs also do not include U.S. Territories with the exception of non-federal lands in Puerto Rico, which are included in the NRI survey. Furthermore, NLCD does not include coverage for U.S. Territories.

for the conterminous United States and Hawaii. Regardless, the total difference between the U.S. Census Survey and the data sources used in the Inventory is about 25 million hectares for the total land base of about 786 million hectares currently included in the Inventory, or a 3.1 percent difference. Much of this difference is associated with open waters in coastal regions and the Great Lakes. NRI does not include as much of the area of open waters in these regions as the U.S. Census Survey.

Approach for Combining Data Sources

The managed land base in the United States has been classified into the six IPCC land-use categories using definitions¹⁷⁵ developed to meet national circumstances, while adhering to IPCC (2006). In practice, the land was initially classified into a variety of land-use categories using the NRI, FIA and NLCD, and then aggregated into the thirty-six broad land use and land-use-change categories identified in IPCC (2006). Details on the approach used to combine data sources for each land use are described below as are the gaps that will be reconciled as part of ongoing planned improvements:

- *Forest Land*: Both non-federal and federal forest lands in both the continental United States and coastal Alaska are covered by FIA. FIA is used as the basis for both Forest Land area data as well as to estimate C stocks and fluxes on Forest Land. Interior Alaska is not currently surveyed by FIA, but NLCD has a new product for Alaska that will be incorporated into the assessment as a planned improvement for future reports. Forest Lands in U.S. territories are currently excluded from the analysis, but FIA surveys are currently being conducted on U.S. territories and will become available in the future. NRI is being used in the current report to provide Forest Land areas on non-federal lands in Hawaii. Currently, federal forest land in Hawaii is evaluated with the 2001 NLCD, but FIA data will be collected in Hawaii in the future.
- *Cropland*: Cropland is classified using the NRI, which covers all non-federal lands within 49 states (excluding Alaska), including state and local government-owned land as well as tribal lands. NRI is used as the basis for both Cropland area data as well as to estimate C stocks and fluxes on Cropland. Croplands in U.S. territories are excluded from both NRI data collection and the NLCD. NLCD has a new product for Alaska that will be incorporated into the assessment as a planned improvement for future reports.
- *Grassland*: Grassland on non-federal lands is classified using the NRI within 49 states (excluding Alaska), including state and local government-owned land as well as tribal lands. NRI is used as the basis for both Grassland area data as well as to estimate C stocks and fluxes on Grassland. U.S. territories are excluded from both NRI data collection and the current release of the NLCD product. Grassland on federal Bureau of Land Management lands, Department of Defense lands, National Parks and within USFS lands are covered by the NLCD. In addition, federal and non-federal grasslands in Alaska are currently excluded from the analysis, but NLCD has a new product for Alaska that will be incorporated into the assessment for future reports.
- *Wetlands*: NRI captures wetlands on non-federal lands within 49 states (excluding Alaska), while federal wetlands are covered by the NLCD. Alaska and U.S. territories are excluded. This currently includes both managed and unmanaged wetlands as no database has yet been applied to make this distinction. See Planned Improvements for details.
- *Settlements*: The NRI captures non-federal settlement area in 49 states (excluding Alaska). If areas of Forest Land or Grassland under 10 acres (4.05 ha) are contained within settlements or urban areas, they are classified as Settlements (urban) in the NRI database. If these parcels exceed the 10 acre (4.05 ha) threshold and are Grassland, they will be classified as such by NRI. Regardless of size, a forested area is classified as non-forest by FIA if it is located within an urban area. Settlements on federal lands are covered by NLCD. Settlements in U.S. territories are currently excluded from NRI and NLCD. NLCD has a new product for Alaska that will be incorporated into the assessment as a planned improvement for future reports.
- *Other Land*: Any land not falling into the other five land categories and, therefore, categorized as Other Land is classified using the NRI for non-federal areas in the 49 states (excluding Alaska) and NLCD for the federal lands. Other land in U.S. territories is excluded from the NLCD. NLCD has a new product for

¹⁷⁵ Definitions are provided in the previous section.

Alaska that will be incorporated into the assessment as a planned improvement for future reports.

Some lands can be classified into one or more categories due to multiple uses that meet the criteria of more than one definition. However, a ranking has been developed for assignment priority in these cases. The ranking process is initiated by distinguishing between managed and unmanaged lands. The managed lands are then assigned, from highest to lowest priority, in the following manner:

Settlements > Cropland > Forest Land > Grassland > Wetlands > Other Land

Settlements are given the highest assignment priority because they are extremely heterogeneous with a mosaic of patches that include buildings, infrastructure and travel corridors, but also open grass areas, forest patches, riparian areas, and gardens. The latter examples could be classified as Grassland, Forest Land, Wetlands, and Cropland, respectively, but when located in close proximity to settlement areas they tend to be managed in a unique manner compared to non-settlement areas. Consequently, these areas are assigned to the Settlements land-use category. Cropland is given the second assignment priority, because cropping practices tend to dominate management activities on areas used to produce food, forage or fiber. The consequence of this ranking is that crops in rotation with grass will be classified as Cropland, and land with woody plant cover that is used to produce crops (e.g., orchards) is classified as Cropland, even though these areas may meet the definitions of Grassland or Forest Land, respectively. Similarly, Wetlands are considered Croplands if they are used for crop production, such as rice or cranberries. Forest Land occurs next in the priority assignment because traditional forestry practices tend to be the focus of the management activity in areas with woody plant cover that are not croplands (e.g., orchards) or settlements (e.g., housing subdivisions with significant tree cover). Grassland occurs next in the ranking, while Wetlands and Other Land complete the list.

The assignment priority does not reflect the level of importance for reporting greenhouse gas emissions and removals on managed land, but is intended to classify all areas into a single land use. Currently, the IPCC does not make provisions in the guidelines for assigning land to multiple uses. For example, a Wetland is classified as Forest Land if the area has sufficient tree cover to meet the stocking and stand size requirements. Similarly, Wetlands are classified as Cropland if they are used for crop production, such as rice or cranberries. In either case, emissions from Wetlands are included in the Inventory if human interventions are influencing emissions from Wetlands, in accordance with the guidance provided in IPCC (2006).

Recalculations Discussion

No major revisions were made to the time series for the current Inventory. However, new data were incorporated from FIA on forestland areas, which was used to make minor adjustments to the time series. FIA conducts a survey of plots annually so that each plot is visited every 5 years (Note: some states have not initiated the annual sampling regime, as discussed previously). Consequently, the time series is updated each year as new data are collected over the 5 year cycles.

Planned Improvements

Area data by land-use category are not estimated for major portions of Alaska or any of the U.S. territories. A key planned improvement is to incorporate land-use data from these areas into the Inventory. For Alaska, a new NLCD 2001 data product will be used to cover those land areas presently omitted. Fortunately, most of the managed land in the United States is included in the current land-use statistics, but a complete accounting is a key goal for the near future. Data sources will also be evaluated for representing land use on federal and non-federal lands in U.S. territories.

Additional work will be conducted to reconcile differences in Forest Land estimates between the NRI and FIA, evaluating the assumption that the majority of discrepancies in Forest Land areas are associated with an over- or under-estimation of Grassland and Wetland area. In some regions of the United States, a discrepancy in Forest Land areas between NRI and FIA may be associated with an over- or under-prediction of other land uses, and an analysis is planned to develop region-specific adjustments.

There are also other databases that may need to be reconciled with the NRI and NLCD datasets, particularly for Settlements and Wetlands. Urban area estimates, used to produce C stock and flux estimates from urban trees, are currently based on population data (1990 and 2000 U.S. Census data). Using the population statistics, “urban clusters” are defined as areas with more than 500 people per square mile. The USFS is currently moving ahead with

an urban forest inventory program so that urban forest area estimates will be consistent with FIA forest area estimates outside of urban areas, which would be expected to reduce omissions and overlap of forest area estimates along urban boundary areas.

7.2. Forest Land Remaining Forest Land

Changes in Forest Carbon Stocks (IPCC Source Category 5A1)

For estimating C stocks or stock change (flux), C in forest ecosystems can be divided into the following five storage pools (IPCC 2003):

- Aboveground biomass, which includes all living biomass above the soil including stem, stump, branches, bark, seeds, and foliage. This category includes live understory.
- Belowground biomass, which includes all living biomass of coarse living roots greater than 2 mm diameter.
- Dead wood, which includes all non-living woody biomass either standing, lying on the ground (but not including litter), or in the soil.
- Litter, which includes the litter, fomic, and humic layers, and all non-living biomass with a diameter less than 7.5 cm at transect intersection, lying on the ground.
- Soil organic C (SOC), including all organic material in soil to a depth of 1 meter but excluding the coarse roots of the aboveground pools.

In addition, there are two harvested wood pools necessary for estimating C flux:

- Harvested wood products (HWP) in use.
- HWP in solid waste disposal sites (SWDS).

C is continuously cycled among these storage pools and between forest ecosystems and the atmosphere as a result of biological processes in forests (e.g., photosynthesis, respiration, growth, mortality, decomposition, and disturbances such as fires or pest outbreaks) and anthropogenic activities (e.g., harvesting, thinning, clearing, and replanting). As trees photosynthesize and grow, C is removed from the atmosphere and stored in living tree biomass. As trees die and otherwise deposit litter and debris on the forest floor, C is released to the atmosphere or transferred to the soil by organisms that facilitate decomposition.

The net change in forest C is not equivalent to the net flux between forests and the atmosphere because timber harvests do not cause an immediate flux of C of all vegetation C to the atmosphere. Instead, harvesting transfers a portion of the C stored in wood to a "product pool." Once in a product pool, the C is emitted over time as CO₂ when the wood product combusts or decays. The rate of emission varies considerably among different product pools. For example, if timber is harvested to produce energy, combustion releases C immediately. Conversely, if timber is harvested and used as lumber in a house, it may be many decades or even centuries before the lumber decays and C is released to the atmosphere. If wood products are disposed of in SWDS, the C contained in the wood may be released many years or decades later, or may be stored almost permanently in the SWDS.

This section quantifies the net changes in C stocks in the five forest C pools and two harvested wood pools. The net change in stocks for each pool is estimated, and then the changes in stocks are summed over all pools to estimate total net flux. The focus on C implies that all C-based greenhouse gases are included, and the focus on stock change suggests that specific ecosystem fluxes do not need to be separately itemized in this report. Disturbances from forest fires and pest outbreaks are implicitly included in the net changes. For instance, an inventory conducted after fire counts only the trees that are left. The change between inventories thus accounts for the C changes due to fires; however, it may not be possible to attribute the changes to the disturbance specifically. The IPCC (2003) recommends reporting C stocks according to several land-use types and conversions, specifically *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* and *Land Converted to Forest Land*. Currently, consistent datasets are just becoming available for the conterminous United States to allow forest land conversions and forest land remaining forest land to be identified, and research is ongoing to properly use that information based on research results. Thus, net changes in all forest-related land, including non-forest land converted to forest and forests converted to non-forest, are reported here.

Forest C storage pools, and the flows between them via emissions, sequestration, and transfers, are shown in Figure 7-2. In the figure, boxes represent forest C storage pools and arrows represent flows between storage pools or between storage pools and the atmosphere. Note that the boxes are not identical to the storage pools identified in this chapter. The storage pools identified in this chapter have been refined in this graphic to better illustrate the processes that result in transfers of C from one pool to another, and emissions to as well as uptake from the atmosphere.

Figure 7-2: Forest Sector Carbon Pools and Flows

Approximately 33 percent (304 million hectares) of the U.S. land area is forested (Smith et al. 2009). The current forest carbon inventory includes 271 million hectares in the conterminous 48 states (USDA Forest Service 2010a, 2010b) that are considered managed and are included in this inventory. An additional 6.1 million hectares of southeast and south central Alaskan forest are inventoried and are included here. Three notable differences exist in forest land defined in Smith et al. (2009) and the forest land included in this report, which is based on USDA Forest Service (2010b). Survey data are not yet available from Hawaii and a large portion of interior Alaska, but estimates of these areas are included in Smith et al. (2009). Alternately, survey data for west Texas has only recently become available, and these forests contribute to overall carbon stock reported below. While Hawaii and U.S. territories have relatively small areas of forest land and will thus probably not influence the overall C budget substantially, these regions will be added to the C budget as sufficient data become available. Agroforestry systems are also not currently accounted for in the inventory, since they are not explicitly inventoried by either the Forest Inventory and Analysis (FIA) program of the U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) Forest Service or the National Resources Inventory (NRI) of the USDA Natural Resources Conservation Service (Perry et al. 2005).

Sixty-eight percent of U.S. forests (208 million hectares) are classified as timberland, meaning they meet minimum levels of productivity. Nine percent of Alaska forests overall and 81 percent of forests in the conterminous United States are classified as timberlands. Of the remaining nontimberland forests, 30 million hectares are reserved forest lands (withdrawn by law from management for production of wood products) and 66 million hectares are lower productivity forest lands (Smith et al. 2009). Historically, the timberlands in the conterminous 48 states have been more frequently or intensively surveyed than other forest lands.

Forest land area declined by approximately 10 million hectares over the period from the early 1960s to the late 1980s. Since then, forest area has increased by about 12 million hectares. Current trends in forest area represent average annual change of less than 0.2 percent. Given the low rate of change in U.S. forest land area, the major influences on the current net C flux from forest land are management activities and the ongoing impacts of previous land-use changes. These activities affect the net flux of C by altering the amount of C stored in forest ecosystems. For example, intensified management of forests that leads to an increased rate of growth increases the eventual biomass density of the forest, thereby increasing the uptake of C.¹⁷⁶ Though harvesting forests removes much of the aboveground C, on average the volume of annual net growth nationwide is about 72 percent higher than the volume of annual removals on timberlands (Smith et al. 2009). The reversion of cropland to forest land increases C storage in biomass, forest floor, and soils. The net effects of forest management and the effects of land-use change involving forest land are captured in the estimates of C stocks and fluxes presented in this chapter.

In the United States, improved forest management practices, the regeneration of previously cleared forest areas, and timber harvesting and use have resulted in net uptake (i.e., net sequestration) of C each year from 1990 through 2009. The rate of forest clearing begun in the 17th century following European settlement had slowed by the late 19th century. Through the later part of the 20th century many areas of previously forested land in the United States were allowed to revert to forests or were actively reforested. The impacts of these land-use changes still influence C fluxes from these forest lands. More recently, the 1970s and 1980s saw a resurgence of federally-sponsored forest management programs (e.g., the Forestry Incentive Program) and soil conservation programs (e.g., the Conservation Reserve Program), which have focused on tree planting, improving timber management activities, combating soil erosion, and converting marginal cropland to forests. In addition to forest regeneration and management, forest

¹⁷⁶ The term “biomass density” refers to the mass of live vegetation per unit area. It is usually measured on a dry-weight basis. Dry biomass is 50 percent C by weight.

harvests have also affected net C fluxes. Because most of the timber harvested from U.S. forests is used in wood products, and many discarded wood products are disposed of in SWDS rather than by incineration, significant quantities of C in harvested wood are transferred to long-term storage pools rather than being released rapidly to the atmosphere (Skog and Nicholson 1998, Skog 2008). The size of these long-term C storage pools has increased during the last century.

Changes in C stocks in U.S. forests and harvested wood were estimated to account for net sequestration of 863 Tg CO₂ Eq. (235 Tg C) in 2009 (Table 7-6, Table 7-7, and Table 7-8). In addition to the net accumulation of C in harvested wood pools, sequestration is a reflection of net forest growth and increasing forest area over this period. Overall, average C in forest ecosystem biomass (aboveground and belowground) increased from 67 to 73 Mg C/ha between 1990 and 2010 (see Annex 3-12 for average C densities by specific regions and forest types). Continuous, regular annual surveys are not available over the period for each state; therefore, estimates for non-survey years were derived by interpolation between known data points. Survey years vary from state to state, and national estimates are a composite of individual state surveys. Therefore, changes in sequestration over the interval 1990 to 2009 are the result of the sequences of new inventories for each state. C in forest ecosystem biomass had the greatest effect on total change through increases in C density and total forest land. Management practices that increase C stocks on forest land, as well as afforestation and reforestation efforts, influence the trends of increased C densities in forests and increased forest land in the United States.

The decline in net additions to HWP carbon stocks continued through 2009 from the recent high point in 2006. This is due to sharp declines in U.S. production of solidwood and paper products in 2009 primarily due to the decline in housing construction. The low level of gross additions to solidwood and paper products in use in 2009 was exceeded by discards from uses. The result is a net reduction in the amount of HWP carbon that is held in products in use during 2009. For 2009, additions to landfills still exceeded emissions from landfills and the net additions to landfills have remained relatively stable. Overall, there were net carbon additions to HWP in use and in landfills combined in 2009.

Table 7-6: Net Annual Changes in C Stocks (Tg CO₂/yr) in Forest and Harvested Wood Pools

Carbon Pool	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Forest	(549.3)	(265.4)	(806.1)	(808.9)	(808.9)	(808.9)	(808.9)
Aboveground							
Biomass	(360.0)	(287.0)	(447.9)	(447.9)	(447.9)	(447.9)	(447.9)
Belowground							
Biomass	(70.9)	(57.5)	(88.4)	(88.4)	(88.4)	(88.4)	(88.4)
Dead Wood	(31.6)	(12.9)	(30.8)	(33.5)	(33.5)	(33.5)	(33.5)
Litter	(32.2)	27.5	(41.9)	(41.9)	(41.9)	(41.9)	(41.9)
Soil Organic							
Carbon	(54.7)	64.6	(197.2)	(197.2)	(197.2)	(197.2)	(197.2)
Harvested Wood	(131.8)	(112.9)	(105.4)	(108.6)	(103.0)	(82.1)	(54.3)
Products in Use	(64.8)	(47.0)	(45.4)	(45.1)	(39.1)	(19.1)	6.8
SWDS	(67.0)	(65.9)	(59.9)	(63.4)	(63.8)	(63.0)	(61.1)
Total Net Flux	(681.1)	(378.3)	(911.5)	(917.5)	(911.9)	(891.0)	(863.1)

Note: Forest C stocks do not include forest stocks in U.S. territories, Hawaii, a portion of managed forests in Alaska, or trees on non-forest land (e.g., urban trees, agroforestry systems). Parentheses indicate net C sequestration (i.e., a net removal of C from the atmosphere). Total net flux is an estimate of the actual net flux between the total forest C pool and the atmosphere. Forest area estimates are based on interpolation and extrapolation of inventory data as described in the text and in Annex 3.12. Harvested wood estimates are based on results from annual surveys and models. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 7-7: Net Annual Changes in C Stocks (Tg C/yr) in Forest and Harvested Wood Pools

Carbon Pool	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Forest	(149.8)	(72.4)	(219.9)	(220.6)	(220.6)	(220.6)	(220.6)
Aboveground							
Biomass	(98.2)	(78.3)	(122.1)	(122.1)	(122.1)	(122.1)	(122.1)
Belowground							
Biomass	(19.3)	(15.7)	(24.1)	(24.1)	(24.1)	(24.1)	(24.1)
Dead Wood	(8.6)	(3.5)	(8.4)	(9.1)	(9.1)	(9.1)	(9.1)

Litter	(8.8)	7.5	(11.4)	(11.4)	(11.4)	(11.4)	(11.4)
Soil Organic C	(14.9)	17.6	(53.8)	(53.8)	(53.8)	(53.8)	(53.8)
Harvested Wood	(35.9)	(30.8)	(28.7)	(29.6)	(28.1)	(22.4)	(14.8)
Products in Use	(17.7)	(12.8)	(12.4)	(12.3)	(10.7)	(5.2)	1.9
SWDS	(18.3)	(18.0)	(16.3)	(17.3)	(17.4)	(17.2)	(16.7)
Total Net Flux	(185.7)	(103.2)	(248.6)	(250.2)	(248.7)	(243.0)	(235.4)

Note: Forest C stocks do not include forest stocks in U.S. territories, Hawaii, a portion of managed lands in Alaska, or trees on non-forest land (e.g., urban trees, agroforestry systems). Parentheses indicate net C sequestration (i.e., a net removal of C from the atmosphere). Total net flux is an estimate of the actual net flux between the total forest C pool and the atmosphere. Harvested wood estimates are based on results from annual surveys and models. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Stock estimates for forest and harvested wood C storage pools are presented in Table 7-8. Together, the aboveground live and forest soil pools account for a large proportion of total forest C stocks. C stocks in all non-soil pools increased over time. Therefore, C sequestration was greater than C emissions from forests, as discussed above. Figure 7-4 shows county-average C densities for live trees on forest land, including both above- and belowground biomass.

Table 7-8: Forest area (1000 ha) and C Stocks (Tg C) in Forest and Harvested Wood Pools

	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Forest Area (1000 ha)	269,137	274,183	276,769	277,561	278,354	279,147	279,939	280,732
Carbon Pools (Tg C)								
Forest	42,783	44,108	44,886	45,105	45,326	45,547	45,767	45,988
Aboveground								
Biomass	15,072	16,024	16,536	16,658	16,780	16,902	17,024	17,147
Belowground								
Biomass	2,995	3,183	3,285	3,309	3,333	3,357	3,381	3,405
Dead Wood	2,960	3,031	3,060	3,068	3,077	3,086	3,096	3,105
Litter	4,791	4,845	4,862	4,873	4,885	4,896	4,908	4,919
Soil Organic C	16,96	17,025	17,143	17,197	17,251	17,304	17,358	17,412
Harvested								
Wood	1,859	2,187	2,325	2,354	2,383	2,412	2,434	2,449
Products in Use	1,231	1,382	1,436	1,448	1,460	1,471	1,476	1,474
SWDS	628	805	890	906	923	941	958	974
Total C Stock	44,643	46,296	47,211	47,459	47,710	47,958	48,201	48,437

Note: Forest area estimates include portions of managed forests in Alaska for which survey data are available. Forest C stocks do not include forest stocks in U.S. territories, Hawaii, a large portion of Alaska, or trees on non-forest land (e.g., urban trees, agroforestry systems). Wood product stocks include exports, even if the logs are processed in other countries, and exclude imports. Forest area estimates are based on interpolation and extrapolation of inventory data as described in Smith et al. (2010) and in Annex 3.12. Harvested wood estimates are based on results from annual surveys and models. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Inventories are assumed to represent stocks as of January 1 of the inventory year. Flux is the net annual change in stock. Thus, an estimate of flux for 2006 requires estimates of C stocks for 2006 and 2007.

Figure 7-3: Estimates of Net Annual Changes in C Stocks for Major C Pools

Figure 7-4: Average C Density in the Forest Tree Pool in the Conterminous United States, 2009

[BEGIN BOX]

Box 7-2: CO₂ Emissions from Forest Fires

As stated previously, the forest inventory approach implicitly accounts for emissions due to disturbances such as forest fires, because only C remaining in the forest is estimated. Net C stock change is estimated by subtracting consecutive C stock estimates. A disturbance removes C from the forest. The inventory data on which net C stock estimates are based already reflect this C loss. Therefore, estimates of net annual changes in C stocks for U.S. forestland already account for CO₂ emissions from forest fires occurring in the lower 48 states as well as in the proportion of Alaska's managed forest land captured in this inventory. Because it is of interest to quantify the magnitude of CO₂ emissions from fire disturbance, these estimates are being highlighted here, using the full extent of available data. Non-CO₂ greenhouse gas emissions from forest fires are also quantified in a separate section below.

The IPCC (2003) methodology and IPCC (2006) default combustion factor for wildfire were employed to estimate CO₂ emissions from forest fires. CO₂ emissions from wildfires and prescribed fires in the lower 48 states and wildfires in Alaska in 2009 were estimated to be 124.3 Tg CO₂/yr. This amount is masked in the estimate of net annual forest carbon stock change for 2009, however, because this net estimate accounts for the amount sequestered minus any emissions.

Table 7-9: Estimates of CO₂ (Tg/yr) emissions for the lower 48 states and Alaska¹

Year	CO ₂ emitted from Wildfires in Lower 48 States (Tg/yr)	CO ₂ emitted from Prescribed Fires in Lower 48 States (Tg/yr)	CO ₂ emitted from Wildfires in Alaska (Tg/yr)	Total CO ₂ emitted (Tg/yr)
1990	42.1	8.5	+	50.7
2000	225.1	2.1	+	227.3
2005	131.0	24.8	+	155.9
2006	313.6	29.3	+	342.9
2007	284.1	34.0	+	318.1
2008	169.0	20.8	+	189.8
2009	97.1	27.3	+	124.3

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

¹ Note that these emissions have already been accounted for in the estimates of net annual changes in C stocks, which account for the amount sequestered minus any emissions.

[END BOX]

Methodology and Data Sources

The methodology described herein is consistent with IPCC (2003, 2006) and IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997). Forest ecosystem C stocks and net annual C stock change are determined according to stock-difference methods, which involve applying C estimation factors to forest inventory data and interpolating between successive inventory-based estimates of C stocks. Harvested wood C estimates are based on factors such as the allocation of wood to various primary and end-use products as well as half-life (the time at which half of amount placed in use will have been discarded from use) and expected disposition (e.g., product pool, SWDS, combustion). An overview of the different methodologies and data sources used to estimate the C in forest ecosystems or harvested wood products is provided here. See Annex 3.12 for details and additional information related to the methods and data.

Forest Ecosystem Carbon from Forest Inventory

Forest ecosystem stock and flux estimates are based on the stock-difference method and calculations for all estimates are in units of C. Separate estimates are made for the five IPCC C storage pools described above. All estimates are based on data collected from the extensive array of permanent forest inventory plots in the United States as well as models employed to fill gaps in field data. Carbon conversion factors are applied at the disaggregated level of each inventory plot and then appropriately expanded to population estimates. A combination

of tiers as outlined by IPCC (2006) is used. The Tier 3 biomass C values are from forest inventory tree-level data. The Tier 2 dead organic and soil C pools are based on empirical or process models from the inventory data. All carbon conversion factors are specific to regions or individual states within the U.S., which are further classified according to characteristic forest types within each region.

The first step in developing forest ecosystem estimates is to identify useful inventory data and resolve any inconsistencies among datasets. Forest inventory data were obtained from the USDA Forest Service FIA program (Frayner and Furnival 1999, USDA Forest Service 2010b). Inventories include data collected on permanent inventory plots on forest lands¹⁷⁷ and are organized as a number of separate datasets, each representing a complete inventory, or survey, of an individual state at a specified time. Some of the more recent annual inventories reported for some states include “moving window” averages, which means that a portion—but not all—of the previous year’s inventory is updated each year (USDA Forest Service 2010d). Forest C calculations are organized according to these state surveys, and the frequency of surveys varies by state. All available data sets are identified for each state starting with pre-1990 data, and all unique surveys are identified for stock and change calculations. Since C stock change is based on differences between successive surveys within each state, accurate estimates of net C flux thus depend on consistent representation of forest land between these successive inventories. In order to achieve this consistency from 1990 to the present, states are sometimes subdivided into sub-state areas where the sum of sub-state inventories produces the best whole-state representation of C change as discussed in Smith et al. (2010).

The principal FIA datasets employed are freely available for download at USDA Forest Service (2010b) as the Forest Inventory and Analysis Database (FIADB) Version 4.0. However, to achieve consistent representation (spatial and temporal), two other general sources of past FIA data are included as necessary. First, older FIA plot- and tree-level data—not in the current FIADB format—are used if available. Second, Resources Planning Act Assessment (RPA) databases, which are periodic, plot-level only, summaries of state inventories, are used mostly to provide the data at or before 1990. An additional forest inventory data source is the Integrated Database (IDB), which is a compilation of periodic forest inventory data from the 1990s for California, Oregon, and Washington (Waddell and Hiserote 2005). These data were identified by Heath et al. (submitted) as the most appropriate non-FIADB sources for these states and are included in this inventory. See USDA Forest Service (2010a) for information on current and older data as well as additional FIA Program features. A detailed list of the specific forest inventory data used in this inventory is in Annex 3.12.

Forest C stocks are estimated from inventory data by a collection of conversion factors and models (Birdsey and Heath 1995, Birdsey and Heath 2001, Heath et al. 2003, Smith et al. 2004, Smith et al. 2006), which have been formalized in an FIADB-to-carbon calculator (Smith et al. 2010). The conversion factors and model coefficients are categorized by region and forest type, and forest C stock estimates are calculated from application of these factors at the scale of FIA inventory plots. The results are estimates of C density (Mg C per hectare) for six forest ecosystem pools: live trees, standing dead trees,

Carbon in Biomass

Live tree C pools include aboveground and belowground (coarse root) biomass of live trees with diameter at diameter breast height (d.b.h.) of at least 2.54 cm at 1.37 m above the forest floor. Separate estimates are made for full-tree and aboveground-only biomass in order to estimate the belowground component. If inventory plots include data on individual trees, tree C is based on Jenkins et al. (2003) and is a function of species and diameter. Some inventory data do not provide measurements of individual trees; tree C in these plots is estimated from plot-level volume of merchantable wood, or growing-stock volume, of live trees, which is calculated from updates of Smith et al. (2003). These biomass conversion and expansion factors (BCEFs) are applied to about 3 percent of the inventory records, all of which are pre-1998 data. Some inventory data, particularly some of the older datasets, may not include sufficient information to calculate tree C because of incomplete or missing tree or volume data; C estimates for these plots are based on averages from similar, but more complete, inventory data. This applies to an additional 2 percent of inventory records, which represent older (pre-1998) non-timberlands.

Understory vegetation is a minor component of biomass, which is defined as all biomass of undergrowth plants in a forest, including woody shrubs and trees less than 2.54 cm d.b.h. In the current inventory, it is assumed that 10 percent of total understory C mass is belowground. Estimates of C density are based on information in Birdsey (1996). Understory frequently represents over 1 percent of C in biomass, but its contribution rarely exceeds 2 percent of the total.

Carbon in Dead Organic Matter

Dead organic matter is initially calculated as three separate pools with C stocks modeled from inventory data. Estimates are specific to regions and forest types within each region, and stratification of forest land for dead organic matter calculations is identical to that used for biomass through the state and sub-state use of FIA data as discussed above. The two components of dead wood—standing dead trees and down dead wood—are estimated separately. The standing dead tree C pools include aboveground and belowground (coarse root) mass and include trees of at least 2.54 cm d.b.h. Calculations are BCEF-like factors based on updates of Smith et al. (2003). Down dead wood is defined as pieces of dead wood greater than 7.5 cm diameter, at transect intersection, that are not attached to live or standing dead trees. Down dead wood includes stumps and roots of harvested trees. Ratios of down dead wood to live tree are used to estimate this quantity. Litter C is the pool of organic C (also known as duff, humus, and fine woody debris) above the mineral soil and includes woody fragments with diameters of up to 7.5 cm. Estimates are based on equations of Smith and Heath (2002).

Carbon in Forest Soil

Soil organic C (SOC) includes all organic material in soil to a depth of 1 meter but excludes the coarse roots of the biomass or dead wood pools. Estimates of SOC are based on the national STATSGO spatial database (USDA 1991), which includes region and soil type information. SOC determination is based on the general approach described by Amichev and Galbraith (2004). Links to FIA inventory data were developed with the assistance of the USDA Forest Service FIA Geospatial Service Center by overlaying FIA forest inventory plots on the soil C map. This method produced mean SOC densities stratified by region and forest type group. It did not provide separate estimates for mineral or organic soils but instead weighted their contribution to the overall average based on the relative amount of each within forest land. Thus, forest SOC is a function of species and location, and net change also depends on these two factors as total forest area changes. In this respect, SOC provides a country-specific reference stock for 1990-present, but it does not reflect effects of past land use.

Harvested Wood Carbon

Estimates of the HWP contribution to forest C sinks and emissions (hereafter called “HWP Contribution”) are based on methods described in Skog (2008) using the WOODCARB II model. These methods are based on IPCC (2006) guidance for estimating HWP C. IPCC (2006) provides methods that allow Parties to report HWP Contribution using one of several different accounting approaches: production, stock change and atmospheric flow, as well as a default method that assumes there is no change in HWP C stocks (see Annex 3.12 for more details about each approach). The United States uses the production accounting approach to report HWP Contribution. Under the production approach, C in exported wood is estimated as if it remains in the United States, and C in imported wood is not included in inventory estimates. Though reported U.S. HWP estimates are based on the production approach, estimates resulting from use of the two alternative approaches, the stock change and atmospheric flow approaches,

are also presented for comparison (see Annex 3.12). Annual estimates of change are calculated by tracking the additions to and removals from the pool of products held in end uses (i.e., products in use such as housing or publications) and the pool of products held in solid waste disposal sites (SWDS).

Solidwood products added to pools include lumber and panels. End-use categories for solidwood include single and multifamily housing, alteration and repair of housing, and other end-uses. There is one product category and one end-use category for paper. Additions to and removals from pools are tracked beginning in 1900, with the exception that additions of softwood lumber to housing begins in 1800. Solidwood and paper product production and trade data are from USDA Forest Service and other sources (Hair and Ulrich 1963; Hair 1958; USDC Bureau of Census; 1976; Ulrich, 1985, 1989; Steer 1948; AF&PA 2006a 2006b; Howard 2003, 2007). Estimates for disposal of products reflect the change over time in the fraction of products discarded to SWDS (as opposed to burning or recycling) and the fraction of SWDS that are in sanitary landfills versus dumps.

There are five annual HWP variables that are used in varying combinations to estimate HWP Contribution using any one of the three main approaches listed above. These are:

- (1A) annual change of C in wood and paper products in use in the United States,
- (1B) annual change of C in wood and paper products in SWDS in the United States,
- (2A) annual change of C in wood and paper products in use in the United States and other countries where the wood came from trees harvested in the United States,
- (2B) annual change of C in wood and paper products in SWDS in the United States and other countries where the wood came from trees harvested in the United States,
- (3) C in imports of wood, pulp, and paper to the United States,
- (4) C in exports of wood, pulp and paper from the United States, and
- (5) C in annual harvest of wood from forests in the United States.

The sum of variables 2A and 2B yields the estimate for HWP Contribution under the production accounting approach. A key assumption for estimating these variables is that products exported from the United States and held in pools in other countries have the same half lives for products in use, the same percentage of discarded products go to SWDS, and the same decay rates in SWDS as they would in the United States.

Uncertainty and Time Series Consistency

A quantitative uncertainty analysis placed bounds on current flux for forest ecosystems as well as C in harvested wood products through Monte Carlo simulation of the Methods described above and probabilistic sampling of C conversion factors and inventory data. See Annex 3.12 for additional information. The 2009 flux estimate for forest C stocks is estimated to be between -1,014 and -714 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This includes a range of -662 to -959 Tg CO₂ Eq. in forest ecosystems and -69 to -41 Tg CO₂ Eq. for HWP.

Table 7-10: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for Net CO₂ Flux from Forest Land Remaining Forest Land: Changes in Forest C Stocks (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Flux Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Flux Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Forest Ecosystem	CO ₂	(808.9)	(959.4)	(661.7)	-19%	-18%
Harvested Wood Products	CO ₂	(54.3)	(68.6)	(41.0)	-27%	-24%
Total Forest	CO₂	(863.1)	(1,014.4)	(713.9)	-18%	-17%

Note: Parentheses indicate negative values or net sequestration.

^aRange of flux estimates predicted by Monte Carlo stochastic simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section,

above.

QA/QC and Verification

As discussed above, the FIA program has conducted consistent forest surveys based on extensive statistically-based sampling of most of the forest land in the conterminous United States, dating back to 1952. The main purpose of the FIA program has been to estimate areas, volume of growing stock, and timber products output and utilization factors. The FIA program includes numerous quality assurance and quality control (QA/QC) procedures, including calibration among field crews, duplicate surveys of some plots, and systematic checking of recorded data. Because of the statistically-based sampling, the large number of survey plots, and the quality of the data, the survey databases developed by the FIA program form a strong foundation for C stock estimates. Field sampling protocols, summary data, and detailed inventory databases are archived and are publicly available on the Internet (USDA Forest Service 2010d).

Many key calculations for estimating current forest C stocks based on FIA data were developed to fill data gaps in assessing forest carbon and have been in use for many years to produce national assessments of forest C stocks and stock changes (see additional discussion and citations in the Methodology section above and in Annex 3.12). General quality control procedures were used in performing calculations to estimate C stocks based on survey data. For example, the derived C datasets, which include inventory variables such as areas and volumes, were compared to standard inventory summaries such as the forest resource statistics of Smith et al. (2009) or selected population estimates generated from FIADB 4.0, which are available at an FIA internet site (USDA Forest Service 2009b). Agreement between the C datasets and the original inventories is important to verify accuracy of the data used. Finally, C stock estimates were compared with previous inventory report estimates to ensure that any differences could be explained by either new data or revised calculation methods (see the “Recalculations” discussion, below).

Estimates of the HWP variables and the HWP contribution under the production accounting approach use data from U.S. Census and USDA Forest Service surveys of production and trade. Factors to convert wood and paper to units C are based on estimates by industry and Forest Service published sources. The WOODCARB II model uses estimation methods suggested by IPCC (2006). Estimates of annual C change in solidwood and paper products in use were calibrated to meet two independent criteria. The first criterion is that the WOODCARB II model estimate of C in houses standing in 2001 needs to match an independent estimate of C in housing based on U.S. Census and USDA Forest Service survey data. Meeting the first criterion resulted in an estimated half life of about 80 years for single family housing built in the 1920s, which is confirmed by other U.S. Census data on housing. The second criterion is that the WOODCARB II model estimate of wood and paper being discarded to SWDS needs to match EPA estimates of discards each year over the period 1990 to 2000 (EPA 2006). These criteria help reduce uncertainty in estimates of annual change in C in products in use in the United States and, to a lesser degree, reduce uncertainty in estimates of annual change in C in products made from wood harvested in the United States. In addition, WOODCARB II landfill decay rates have been validated by ensuring that estimates of CH₄ emissions from landfills based on EPA (2006) data are reasonable in comparison with CH₄ estimates based on WOODCARB II landfill decay rates.

Recalculations Discussion

The basic models used to estimate forest ecosystem and HWP C stocks and change are unchanged from the previous Inventory (Smith et al. 2010, Skog 2008). Many of the state-level estimates for 1990 through the present are relatively similar to the values previously reported (EPA 2010). Recent forest inventory additions to the FIADB include newer annual inventory data for most states including Oklahoma, which had the effect of increasing overall net sequestration estimated for the interval from 2000 through 2008. An additional change to the FIADB was the addition of some older periodic inventories for some southern states; these were incorporated into the calculations but did not appreciably affect national trends. The addition of the IDB forest inventories for a part of the series for California, Oregon, and Washington did affect recalculations for those states and the United States as a whole; it tended to decrease net sequestration throughout the 1990 to 2008 interval. However, the decreased sequestration associated with the use of the IDB was offset by the increased sequestration associated with newer annual inventory data for the post-2000 interval.

Planned Improvements

The ongoing annual surveys by the FIA Program will improve precision of forest C estimates as new state surveys

become available (USDA Forest Service 2010b), particularly in western states. The annual surveys will eventually include all states. To date, three states are not yet reporting any data from the annualized sampling design of FIA: Hawaii, New Mexico and Wyoming. Estimates for these states are currently based on older, periodic data. Hawaii and U.S. territories will also be included when appropriate forest C data are available. In addition, the more intensive sampling of down dead wood, litter, and soil organic C on some of the permanent FIA plots continues and will substantially improve resolution of C pools at the plot level for all U.S. forest land as this information becomes available (Woodall et al. in press). Improved resolution, incorporating more of Alaska's forests, and using annualized sampling data as it becomes available for those states currently not reporting are planned for future reporting.

As more information becomes available about historical land use, the ongoing effects of changes in land use and forest management will be better accounted for in estimates of soil C (Birdsey and Lewis 2003, Woodbury et al. 2006, Woodbury et al. 2007). Currently, soil C estimates are based on the assumption that soil C density depends only on broad forest type group, not on land-use history, but long-term residual effects on soil and forest floor C stocks are likely after land-use change. Estimates of such effects depend on identifying past land use changes associated with forest lands.

Similarly, agroforestry practices, such as windbreaks or riparian forest buffers along waterways, are not currently accounted for in the inventory. In order to properly account for the C stocks and fluxes associated with agroforestry, research will be needed that provides the basis and tools for including these plantings in a nation-wide inventory, as well as the means for entity-level reporting.

Non-CO₂ Emissions from Forest Fires

Emissions of non-CO₂ gases from forest fires were estimated using the default IPCC (2003) methodology incorporating default IPCC (2006) emissions factors and combustion factor for wildfires. Emissions from this source in 2009 were estimated to be 7.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. of CH₄ and 6.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. of N₂O, as shown in Table 7-11 and Table 7-12. The estimates of non-CO₂ emissions from forest fires account for wildfires in the lower 48 states and Alaska as well as prescribed fires in the lower 48 states.

Table 7-11: Estimated Non-CO₂ Emissions from Forest Fires (Tg CO₂ Eq.) for U.S. Forests¹

Gas	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CH ₄	3.2	14.3	9.8	21.6	20.0	11.9	7.8
N ₂ O	2.6	11.7	8.0	17.6	16.3	9.8	6.4
Total	5.8	26.0	17.8	39.2	36.3	21.7	14.2

¹ Calculated based on C emission estimates in *Changes in Forest Carbon Stocks* and default factors in IPCC (2003, 2006).

Table 7-12: Estimated Non-CO₂ Emissions from Forest Fires (Gg Gas) for U.S. Forests¹

Gas	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CH ₄	152	682	467	1,027	953	569	372
N ₂ O	8	38	26	57	53	31	21

¹ Calculated based on C emission estimates in *Changes in Forest Carbon Stocks* and default factors in IPCC (2003, 2006).

Methodology

The IPCC (2003) Tier 2 default methodology was used to calculate non-CO₂ emissions from forest fires. However, more up-to-date default emission factors from IPCC (2006) were converted into gas-specific emission ratios and incorporated into the methodology. Estimates of CH₄ and N₂O emissions were calculated by multiplying the total estimated CO₂ emitted from forest burned by the gas-specific emissions ratios. CO₂ emissions were estimated by multiplying total C emitted (Table 7-13) by the C to CO₂ conversion factor of 44/12 and by 92.8 percent, which is the estimated proportion of C emitted as CO₂ (Smith 2008a). The equations used were:

$$\text{CH}_4 \text{ Emissions} = (\text{C released}) \times 92.8\% \times (44/12) \times (\text{CH}_4 \text{ to CO}_2 \text{ emission ratio})$$

$$\text{N}_2\text{O Emissions} = (\text{C released}) \times 92.8\% \times (44/12) \times (\text{N}_2\text{O to CO}_2 \text{ emission ratio})$$

Estimates for C emitted from forest fires are the same estimates used to generate estimates of CO₂ presented earlier in Box 7-1. Estimates for C emitted include emissions from wildfires in both Alaska and the lower 48 states as well

as emissions from prescribed fires in the lower 48 states only (based on expert judgment that prescribed fires only occur in the lower 48 states) (Smith 2008a). The IPCC (2006) default combustion factor of 0.45 for “all ‘other’ temperate forests” was applied in estimating C emitted from both wildfires and prescribed fires. See the explanation in Annex 3.12 for more details on the methodology used to estimate C emitted from forest fires.

Table 7-13: Estimated Carbon Released from Forest Fires for U.S. Forests

Year	C Emitted (Tg/yr)
1990	14.9
2000	66.8
2005	45.8
2006	100.8
2007	93.5
2008	55.8
2009	36.5

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Non-CO₂ gases emitted from forest fires depend on several variables, including: forest area for Alaska and the lower 48 states; average C densities for wildfires in Alaska, wildfires in the lower 48 states, and prescribed fires in the lower 48 states; emission ratios; and combustion factor values (proportion of biomass consumed by fire). To quantify the uncertainties for emissions from forest fires, a Monte Carlo (Tier 2) uncertainty analysis was performed using information about the uncertainty surrounding each of these variables. The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 7-14.

Table 7-14: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates of Non-CO₂ Emissions from Forest Fires in Forest Land Remaining Forest Land (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Non-CO ₂ Emissions from Forest Fires	CH ₄	7.8	2.2	19.2	-72%	+145%
Non-CO ₂ Emissions from Forest Fires	N ₂ O	6.4	1.8	15.7	-72%	+145%

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

Tier 1 and Tier 2 QA/QC activities were conducted consistent with the U.S. QA/QC plan. Source-specific quality control measures for forest fires included checking input data, documentation, and calculations to ensure data were properly handled through the inventory process. Errors that were found during this process were corrected as necessary.

Recalculations Discussion

This is the second year in which non-CO₂ emissions were calculated using the 2006 IPCC default emission factors for CH₄ and N₂O instead of the 2003 IPCC default emission factors. These default emission factors were converted to CH₄ to CO₂ and N₂O to CO₂ emission ratios and then multiplied by CO₂ emissions to estimate CH₄ and N₂O emissions. The previous 2003 IPCC methodology provides emission ratios that are multiplied by total carbon emitted.

Planned Improvements

The default combustion factor of 0.45 from IPCC (2006) was applied in estimating C emitted from both wildfires and prescribed fires. Additional research into the availability of a combustion factor specific to prescribed fires is

being conducted.

Direct N₂O Fluxes from Forest Soils (IPCC Source Category 5A1)

Of the synthetic N fertilizers applied to soils in the United States, no more than one percent is applied to forest soils. Application rates are similar to those occurring on cropped soils, but in any given year, only a small proportion of total forested land receives N fertilizer. This is because forests are typically fertilized only twice during their approximately 40-year growth cycle (once at planting and once approximately 20 years later). Thus, while the rate of N fertilizer application for the area of forests that receives N fertilizer in any given year is relatively high, the average annual application is quite low as inferred by dividing all forest land that may undergo N fertilization at some point during its growing cycle by the amount of N fertilizer added to these forests in a given year. Direct N₂O emissions from forest soils in 2009 were 0.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1 Gg). Emissions have increased by 455 percent from 1990 to 2009 as a result of an increase in the area of N fertilized pine plantations in the southeastern United States and Douglas-fir timberland in western Washington and Oregon. Total forest soil N₂O emissions are summarized in Table 7-15.

Table 7-15: Direct N₂O Fluxes from Soils in *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg N₂O)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	0.1	0.2
2000	0.4	1.3
2005	0.4	1.2
2006	0.4	1.2
2007	0.4	1.2
2008	0.4	1.2
2009	0.4	1.2

Note: These estimates include direct N₂O emissions from N fertilizer additions only. Indirect N₂O emissions from fertilizer additions are reported in the Agriculture chapter. These estimates include emissions from both *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* and from *Land Converted to Forest Land*.

Methodology

The IPCC Tier 1 approach was used to estimate N₂O from soils within *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land*. According to U.S. Forest Service statistics for 1996 (USDA Forest Service 2001), approximately 75 percent of trees planted were for timber, and about 60 percent of national total harvested forest area is in the southeastern United States. Although southeastern pine plantations represent the majority of fertilized forests in the United States, this Inventory also accounted for N fertilizer application to commercial Douglas-fir stands in western Oregon and Washington. For the Southeast, estimates of direct N₂O emissions from fertilizer applications to forests were based on the area of pine plantations receiving fertilizer in the southeastern United States and estimated application rates (Albaugh et al. 2007). Not accounting for fertilizer applied to non-pine plantations is justified because fertilization is routine for pine forests but rare for hardwoods (Binkley et al. 1995). For each year, the area of pine receiving N fertilizer was multiplied by the weighted average of the reported range of N fertilization rates (121 lbs. N per acre). Area data for pine plantations receiving fertilizer in the Southeast were not available for 2005, 2006, 2007 and 2008, so data from 2004 were used for these years. For commercial forests in Oregon and Washington, only fertilizer applied to Douglas-fir was accounted for, because the vast majority (~95 percent) of the total fertilizer applied to forests in this region is applied to Douglas-fir (Briggs 2007). Estimates of total Douglas-fir area and the portion of fertilized area were multiplied to obtain annual area estimates of fertilized Douglas-fir stands. The annual area estimates were multiplied by the typical rate used in this region (200 lbs. N per acre) to estimate total N applied (Briggs 2007), and the total N applied to forests was multiplied by the IPCC (2006) default emission factor of 1 percent to estimate direct N₂O emissions. The volatilization and leaching/runoff N fractions for forest land, calculated according to the IPCC default factors of 10 percent and 30 percent, respectively, were included with the indirect emissions in the Agricultural Soil Management source category (consistent with reporting guidance that all indirect emissions are included in the Agricultural Soil Management source category).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The amount of N₂O emitted from forests depends not only on N inputs and fertilized area, but also on a large number of variables, including organic C availability, oxygen gas partial pressure, soil moisture content, pH, temperature, and tree planting/harvesting cycles. The effect of the combined interaction of these variables on N₂O flux is complex and highly uncertain. IPCC (2006) does not incorporate any of these variables into the default methodology, except variation in estimated fertilizer application rates and estimated areas of forested land receiving N fertilizer. All forest soils are treated equivalently under this methodology. Furthermore, only synthetic N fertilizers are captured, so applications of organic N fertilizers are not estimated. However, the total quantity of organic N inputs to soils is included in the Agricultural Soil Management and *Settlements Remaining Settlements* sections.

Uncertainties exist in the fertilization rates, annual area of forest lands receiving fertilizer, and the emission factors. Fertilization rates were assigned a default level¹⁷⁸ of uncertainty at ±50 percent, and area receiving fertilizer was assigned a ±20 percent according to expert knowledge (Binkley 2004). IPCC (2006) provided estimates for the uncertainty associated with direct N₂O emission factor for synthetic N fertilizer application to soils. Quantitative uncertainty of this source category was estimated through the IPCC-recommended Tier 2 uncertainty estimation methodology. The uncertainty ranges around the 2005 activity data and emission factor input variables were directly applied to the 2009 emissions estimates. The results of the quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 7-16. N₂O fluxes from soils were estimated to be between 0.1 and 1.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 59 percent below and 211 percent above the 2009 emission estimate of 0.4 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 7-16: Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates of N₂O Fluxes from Soils in *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land:						
N ₂ O Fluxes from Soils	N ₂ O	0.4	0.1	1.1	-59%	+211%

Note: This estimate includes direct N₂O emissions from N fertilizer additions to both *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* and *Land Converted to Forest Land*.

Planned Improvements

State-level area data will be acquired for southeastern pine plantations and northwestern Douglas-fir forests receiving fertilizer to estimate soil N₂O emission by state and provide information about regional variation in emission patterns.

7.3. Land Converted to Forest Land (IPCC Source Category 5A2)

Land-use change is constantly occurring, and areas under a number of differing land-use types are converted to forest each year, just as forest land is converted to other uses. However, the magnitude of these changes is not currently known. Given the paucity of available land-use information relevant to this particular IPCC source category, it is not possible to separate CO₂ or N₂O fluxes on *Land Converted to Forest Land* from fluxes on *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* at this time.

7.4. Cropland Remaining Cropland (IPCC Source Category 5B1)

Mineral and Organic Soil Carbon Stock Changes

Soils contain both organic and inorganic forms of C, but soil organic C (SOC) stocks are the main source and sink for atmospheric CO₂ in most soils. Changes in inorganic C stocks are typically minor. In addition, soil organic C is

¹⁷⁸ Uncertainty is unknown for the fertilization rates so a conservative value of ±50% was used in the analysis.

the dominant organic C pool in cropland ecosystems, because biomass and dead organic matter have considerably less C and those pools are relatively ephemeral. IPCC (2006) recommends reporting changes in soil organic C stocks due to agricultural land-use and management activities on mineral and organic soils.¹⁷⁹

Typical well-drained mineral soils contain from 1 to 6 percent organic C by weight, although mineral soils that are saturated with water for substantial periods during the year may contain significantly more C (NRCS 1999). Conversion of mineral soils from their native state to agricultural uses can cause as much as half of the SOC to be decomposed and the C lost to the atmosphere. The rate and ultimate magnitude of C loss will depend on pre-conversion conditions, conversion method and subsequent management practices, climate, and soil type. In the tropics, 40 to 60 percent of the C loss generally occurs within the first 10 years following conversion; C stocks continue to decline in subsequent decades but at a much slower rate. In temperate regions, C loss can continue for several decades, reducing stocks by 20 to 40 percent of native C levels. Eventually, the soil can reach a new equilibrium that reflects a balance between C inputs (e.g., decayed plant matter, roots, and organic amendments such as manure and crop residues) and C loss through microbial decomposition of organic matter. However, land use, management, and other conditions may change before the new equilibrium is reached. The quantity and quality of organic matter inputs and their rate of decomposition are determined by the combined interaction of climate, soil properties, and land use. Land use and agricultural practices such as clearing, drainage, tillage, planting, grazing, crop residue management, fertilization, and flooding can modify both organic matter inputs and decomposition, and thereby result in a net flux of C to or from the pool of soil C.

Organic soils, also referred to as histosols, include all soils with more than 12 to 20 percent organic C by weight, depending on clay content (NRCS 1999, Brady and Weil 1999). The organic layer of these soils can be very deep (i.e., several meters), forming under inundated conditions in which minimal decomposition of plant residue occurs. When organic soils are prepared for crop production, they are drained and tilled, leading to aeration of the soil, which accelerates the rate of decomposition and CO₂ emissions. Because of the depth and richness of the organic layers, C loss from drained organic soils can continue over long periods of time. The rate of CO₂ emissions varies depending on climate and composition (i.e., decomposability) of the organic matter. Also, the use of organic soils for annual crop production leads to higher C loss rates than drainage of organic soils in grassland or forests, due to deeper drainage and more intensive management practices in cropland (Armentano and Verhoeven 1990, as cited in IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Carbon losses are estimated from drained organic soils under both grassland and cropland management in this Inventory.

Cropland Remaining Cropland includes all cropland in an inventory year that had been cropland for the last 20 years¹⁸⁰ according to the USDA NRI land-use survey (USDA-NRCS 2000). The Inventory includes all privately-owned croplands in the conterminous United States and Hawaii, but there is a minor amount of cropland on federal lands that is not currently included in the estimation of C stock changes, leading to a discrepancy between the total amount of managed area in *Cropland Remaining Cropland* (see Section 7.1) and the cropland area included in the Inventory. It is important to note that plans are being made to include federal croplands in the Inventory.

27.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (7.5 Tg C) in 2009. In total, U.S. agricultural soils in *Cropland Remaining Cropland* removed approximately 17.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (4.7 Tg C) in 2009.

Table 7-17: Net CO₂ Flux from Soil C Stock Changes in *Cropland Remaining Cropland* (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Soil Type	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Mineral Soils	(56.8)	(57.9)	(45.9)	(46.8)	(47.3)	(45.7)	(45.1)
Organic Soils	27.4	27.7	27.7	27.7	27.7	27.7	27.7
Total Net Flux	(29.4)	(30.2)	(18.3)	(19.1)	(19.7)	(18.1)	(17.4)

Note: Parentheses indicate net sequestration. Shaded areas indicate values based on a combination of historical data and projections. All other values are based on historical data only. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 7-18: Net CO₂ Flux from Soil C Stock Changes in *Cropland Remaining Cropland* (Tg C)

Soil Type	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Mineral Soils	(15.5)	(15.8)	(12.5)	(12.8)	(12.9)	(12.5)	(12.3)
Organic Soils	7.5	7.5	7.5	7.5	7.5	7.5	7.5
Total Net Flux	(8.0)	(8.2)	(5.0)	(5.2)	(5.4)	(4.9)	(4.7)

Note: Parentheses indicate net sequestration. Shaded areas indicate values based on a combination of historical data and projections. All other values are based on historical data only. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

The net reduction in soil C accumulation over the time series (39 percent from 1990 to 2009) was largely due to the declining influence of annual cropland enrolled in the Conservation Reserve Program, which began in the late 1980s. However, there were still positive increases in C stocks from land enrolled in the reserve program, as well as intensification of crop production by limiting the use of bare-summer fallow in semi-arid regions, increased hay production, and adoption of conservation tillage (i.e., reduced- and no-till practices).

The spatial variability in annual CO₂ flux associated with C stock changes in mineral and organic soils is displayed in Figure 7-5 and Figure 7-6. The highest rates of net C accumulation in mineral soils occurred in the Midwest, which is the area with the largest amounts of cropland managed with conservation tillage. Rates were also high in the Great Plains due to enrollment in the Conservation Reserve Program. Emission rates from drained organic soils were highest along the southeastern coastal region, in the northeast central United States surrounding the Great Lakes, and along the central and northern portions of the West Coast.

Figure 7-5: Total Net Annual CO₂ Flux for Mineral Soils under Agricultural Management within States, 2009, *Cropland Remaining Cropland*

Figure 7-6: Total Net Annual CO₂ Flux for Organic Soils under Agricultural Management within States, 2009, *Cropland Remaining Cropland*

Methodology

The following section includes a description of the methodology used to estimate changes in soil C stocks due to: (1) agricultural land-use and management activities on mineral soils; and (2) agricultural land-use and management activities on organic soils for *Cropland Remaining Cropland*.

Soil C stock changes were estimated for *Cropland Remaining Cropland* (as well as agricultural land falling into the IPCC categories *Land Converted to Cropland*, *Grassland Remaining Grassland*, and *Land Converted to Grassland*) according to land-use histories recorded in the USDA National Resources Inventory (NRI) survey (USDA-NRCS 2000). The NRI is a statistically-based sample of all non-federal land, and includes approximately 260,000 points in agricultural land for the conterminous United States and Hawaii.¹⁸² Each point is associated with an “expansion factor” that allows scaling of C stock changes from NRI points to the entire country (i.e., each expansion factor represents the amount of area with the same land-use/management history as the sample point). Land-use and some

¹⁸² NRI points were classified as agricultural if under grassland or cropland management between 1990 and 2003.

management information (e.g., crop type, soil attributes, and irrigation) were originally collected for each NRI point on a 5-year cycle beginning in 1982. For cropland, data were collected for 4 out of 5 years in the cycle (i.e., 1979-1982, 1984-1987, 1989-1992, and 1994-1997). However, the NRI program began collecting annual data in 1998, and data are currently available through 2003. NRI points were classified as *Cropland Remaining Cropland* in a given year between 1990 and 2009 if the land use had been cropland for 20 years.¹⁸³ Cropland includes all land used to produce food and fiber, or forage that is harvested and used as feed (e.g., hay and silage).

Mineral Soil Carbon Stock Changes

An IPCC Tier 3 model-based approach was applied to estimate C stock changes for mineral soils used to produce a majority of annual crops in the United States (Ogle et al. 2010). The remaining crops on mineral soils were estimated using an IPCC Tier 2 method (Ogle et al. 2003), including vegetables, tobacco, perennial/horticultural crops, rice, and crops rotated with these crops. The Tier 2 method was also used for very gravelly, cobbly, or shaley soils (greater than 35 percent by volume). Mineral SOC stocks were estimated using a Tier 2 method for these areas because the Century model, which is used for the Tier 3 method, has not been fully tested to address its adequacy for estimating C stock changes associated with certain crops and rotations, as well as cobbly, gravelly, or shaley soils. An additional stock change calculation was made for mineral soils using Tier 2 emission factors, accounting for enrollment patterns in the Conservation Reserve Program after 2003, which was not addressed by the Tier 3 methods.

Further elaboration on the methodology and data used to estimate stock changes from mineral soils are described below and in Annex 3.13.

Tier 3 Approach

Mineral SOC stocks and stock changes were estimated using the Century biogeochemical model (Parton et al. 1987, 1988, 1994; Metherell et al. 1993), which simulates the dynamics of C and other elements in cropland, grassland, forest, and savanna ecosystems. It uses monthly weather data as an input, along with information about soil physical properties. Input data on land use and management are specified at monthly resolution and include land-use type, crop/forage type, and management activities (e.g., planting, harvesting, fertilization, manure amendments, tillage, irrigation, residue removal, grazing, and fire). The model computes net primary productivity and C additions to soil, soil temperature, and water dynamics, in addition to turnover, stabilization, and mineralization of soil organic matter C and nutrient (N, K, S) elements. This method is more accurate than the Tier 1 and 2 approaches provided by the IPCC, because the simulation model treats changes as continuous over time rather than the simplified discrete changes represented in the default method (see Box 7-3 for additional information). National estimates were obtained by simulating historical land-use and management patterns as recorded in the USDA National Resources Inventory (NRI) survey.

[BEGIN BOX]

Box 7-3: Tier 3 Approach for Soil C Stocks Compared to Tier 1 or 2 Approaches

A Tier 3 model-based approach is used to inventory soil C stock changes on the majority of agricultural land with mineral soils. This approach entails several fundamental differences compared to the IPCC Tier 1 or 2 methods, which are based on a classification of land areas into a number of discrete classes based on a highly aggregated classification of climate, soil, and management (i.e., only six climate regions, seven soil types and eleven management systems occur in U.S. agricultural land under the IPCC classification). Input variables to the Tier 3 model, including climate, soils, and management activities (e.g., fertilization, crop species, tillage, etc.), are represented in considerably more detail both temporally and spatially, and exhibit multi-dimensional interactions through the more complex model structure compared with the IPCC Tier 1 or 2 approach. The spatial resolution of

¹⁸³ NRI points were classified according to land-use history records starting in 1982 when the NRI survey began. Therefore, the classification prior to 2002 was based on less than 20 years of recorded land-use history for the time series.

the analysis is also finer in the Tier 3 method compared to the lower tier methods as implemented in the United States for previous Inventories (e.g., 3,037 counties versus 181 Major Land Resource Areas (MLRAs), respectively).

In the Century model, soil C dynamics (and CO₂ emissions and uptake) are treated as continuous variables, which change on a monthly time step. Carbon emissions and removals are an outcome of plant production and decomposition processes, which are simulated in the model structure. Thus, changes in soil C stocks are influenced by not only changes in land use and management but also inter-annual climate variability and secondary feedbacks between management activities, climate, and soils as they affect primary production and decomposition. This latter characteristic constitutes one of the greatest differences between the methods, and forms the basis for a more complete accounting of soil C stock changes in the Tier 3 approach compared with Tier 2 methodology.

Because the Tier 3 model simulates a continuous time period rather than the equilibrium step change used in the IPCC methodology (Tier 1 and 2), the Tier 3 model addresses the delayed response of soils to management and land-use changes. Delayed responses can occur due to variable weather patterns and other environmental constraints that interact with land use and management and affect the time frame over which stock changes occur. Moreover, the Tier 3 method also accounts for the overall effect of increasing yields and, hence, C input to soils that have taken place across management systems and crop types within the United States. Productivity has increased by 1 to 2 percent annually over the past 4 to 5 decades for most major crops in the United States (Reilly and Fuglie 1998), which is believed to have led to increases in cropland soil C stocks (e.g., Allmaras et al. 2000). This is a major difference from the IPCC-based Tier 1 and 2 approaches, in which trends in soil C stocks only capture discrete changes in management and/or land use, rather than a longer term trend such as gradual increases in crop productivity.

[END BOX]

Additional sources of activity data were used to supplement the land-use information from NRI. The Conservation Technology Information Center (CTIC 1998) provided annual data on tillage activity at the county level since 1989, with adjustments for long-term adoption of conservation tillage (Reilly and Fuglie 1998).

(Daly et al. 1994). Soil attributes, which were obtained from an NRI database, were assigned based on field visits and soil series descriptions. Each NRI point was run 100 times as part of the uncertainty assessment, yielding a total of over 18 million simulation runs for the analysis. Carbon stock estimates from Century were adjusted using a structural uncertainty estimator accounting for uncertainty in model algorithms and parameter values (Ogle et al. 2007, 2010). C stocks and 95 percent confidence intervals were estimated for each year between 1990 and 2003, but C stock changes from 2004 to 2009 were assumed to be similar to 2003 because no additional activity data are currently available from the NRI for the latter years.

Tier 2 Approach

In the IPCC Tier 2 method, data on climate, soil types, land-use, and land management activity were used to classify land area to apply appropriate stock change factors. MLRAs formed the base spatial unit for mapping climate regions in the United States; each MLRA represents a geographic unit with relatively similar soils, climate, water resources, and land uses (NRCS 1981). MLRAs were classified into climate regions according to the IPCC categories using the PRISM climate database of Daly et al. (1994).

Reference C stocks were estimated using the National Soil Survey Characterization Database (NRCS 1997) with cultivated cropland as the reference condition, rather than native vegetation as used in IPCC (2003, 2006). Changing the reference condition was necessary because soil measurements under agricultural management are much more common and easily identified in the National Soil Survey Characterization Database (NRCS 1997) than those that are not considered cultivated cropland.

U.S.-specific stock change factors were derived from published literature to determine the impact of management practices on SOC storage, including changes in tillage, cropping rotations and intensification, and land-use change between cultivated and uncultivated conditions (Ogle et al. 2003, Ogle et al. 2006). U.S. factors associated with organic matter amendments were not estimated because there were an insufficient number of studies to analyze those impacts. Instead, factors from IPCC (2003) were used to estimate the effect of those activities. Euliss and Gleason (2002) provided the data for computing the change in SOC storage resulting from restoration of wetland enrolled in the Conservation Reserve Program.

Activity data were primarily based on the historical land-use/management patterns recorded in the NRI. Each NRI point was classified by land use, soil type, climate region (using PRISM data, Daly et al. 1994) and management condition. Classification of cropland area by tillage practice was based on data from the Conservation Tillage Information Center (CTIC 1998, Towery 2001) as described above. Activity data on wetland restoration of Conservation Reserve Program land were obtained from Euliss and Gleason (2002). Manure N amendments over the inventory time period were based on application rates and areas amended with manure N from Edmonds et al. (2003), in addition to the managed manure production data discussed in the previous methodology subsection on the Tier 3 analysis for mineral soils.

Combining information from these data sources, SOC stocks for mineral soils were estimated 50,000 times for 1982, 1992, and 1997, using a Monte Carlo simulation approach and the probability distribution functions for U.S.-specific stock change factors, reference C stocks, and land-use activity data (Ogle et al. 2002, Ogle et al. 2003). The annual C flux for 1990 through 1992 was determined by calculating the average annual change in stocks between 1982 and 1992; annual C flux for 1993 through 2009 was determined by calculating the average annual change in stocks between 1992 and 1997.

Additional Mineral C Stock Change

Annual C flux estimates for mineral soils between 1990 and 2009 were adjusted to account for additional C stock changes associated with gains or losses in soil C after 2003 due to changes in Conservation Reserve Program enrollment. The change in enrollment acreage relative to 2003 was based on data from USDA-FSA (2009) for 2004 through 2009, and the differences in mineral soil areas were multiplied by 0.5 metric tons C per hectare per year to estimate the net effect on soil C stocks. The stock change rate is based on estimations using the IPCC method (see Annex 3.13 for further discussion).

Organic Soil Carbon Stock Changes

Annual C emissions from drained organic soils in *Cropland Remaining Cropland* were estimated using the Tier 2 method provided in IPCC (2003, 2006), with U.S.-specific C loss rates (Ogle et al. 2003) rather than default IPCC

rates. The final estimates included a measure of uncertainty as determined from the Monte Carlo simulation with 50,000 iterations. Emissions were based on the 1992 and 1997 *Cropland Remaining Cropland* areas from the 1997 *National Resources Inventory* (USDA-NRCS 2000). The annual flux estimated for 1992 was applied to 1990 through 1992, and the annual flux estimated for 1997 was applied to 1993 through 2009.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainty associated with the *Cropland Remaining Cropland* land-use category was addressed for changes in agricultural soil C stocks (including both mineral and organic soils). Uncertainty estimates are presented in Table 7-19 for mineral soil C stocks and organic soil C stocks disaggregated to the level of the inventory methodology employed (i.e., Tier 2 and Tier 3). Uncertainty for the portions of the Inventory estimated with Tier 2 and 3 approaches was derived using a Monte Carlo approach (see Annex 3.13 for further discussion). A combined uncertainty estimate for changes in soil C stocks is also included. Uncertainty estimates from each component were combined using the error propagation equation in accordance with IPCC (2006). The combined uncertainty was calculated by taking the square root of the sum of the squares of the standard deviations of the uncertain quantities. More details on how the individual uncertainties were developed are in Annex 3.13. The combined uncertainty for soil C stocks in *Cropland Remaining Cropland* ranged from 172 percent below to 167 percent above the 2009 stock change estimate of -17.4 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 7-19: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for Soil C Stock Changes occurring within *Cropland Remaining Cropland* (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	2009 Flux Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Flux Estimate			
		(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Cropland Remaining Cropland, Tier 3 Inventory Methodology	(42.3)	(69.6)	(15.1)	-64%	+64%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Cropland Remaining Cropland, Tier 2 Inventory Methodology	(3.0)	(6.9)	0.8	-127%	+128%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Cropland Remaining Cropland (Change in CRP enrollment relative to 2003)	(0.3)	(0.1)	(0.4)	-50%	+50%
Organic Soil C Stocks: Cropland Remaining Cropland, Tier 2 Inventory Methodology	27.7	15.8	36.9	-43%	+33%
Combined Uncertainty for Flux associated with Agricultural Soil Carbon Stock Change in Cropland Remaining Cropland	(17.4)	(47.3)	11.6	-172%	+167%

Note: Parentheses indicate net sequestration. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

Quality control measures included checking input data, model scripts, and results to ensure data were properly handled throughout the inventory process. As discussed in the uncertainty section, results were compared to field measurements, and a statistical relationship was developed to assess uncertainties in the model's predictive capability. The comparisons included over 40 long-term experiments, representing about 800 combinations of management treatments across all of the sites (Ogle et al. 2007). Inventory reporting forms and text were reviewed and revised as needed to correct transcription errors.

Planned Improvements

The first improvement is to update the Tier 2 inventory analysis with the latest annual National Resources Inventory (NRI) data. While the land base for the Tier 3 approach uses the latest available data from the NRI, the Tier 2 portion of the Inventory has not updated and is based on the Revised 1997 NRI data product (USDA-NRCS 2000).

This improvement will extend the time series of the land use data from 1997 through 2003 for the Tier 2 portion of the Inventory.

The second improvement is to incorporate remote sensing in the analysis for estimation of crop and forage production, and conduct the Tier 3 assessment of soil C stock changes and soil nitrous oxide emissions in a single analysis. Specifically, the Enhanced Vegetation Index (EVI) product that is derived from MODIS satellite imagery is being used to refine the production estimation for the Tier 3 assessment framework based on the DAYCENT simulation model. EVI reflects changes in plant “greenness” over the growing season and can be used to compute production based on the light use efficiency of the crop or forage (Potter et al. 1993). In the current framework, production is simulated based on the weather data, soil characteristics, and the genetic potential of the crop. While this method produces reasonable results, remote sensing can be used to refine the productivity estimates and reduce biases in crop production and subsequent C input to soil systems. It is anticipated that precision in the Tier 3 assessment framework will be increased by 25 percent or more with the new method. In addition, DAYCENT is currently used for estimating soil nitrous oxide emissions in the Inventory, and can also be used to estimate soil organic C stock changes using the same algorithms in the CENTURY model. Simulating both soil C stock changes and nitrous oxide emissions in a single analysis will ensure consistency in the treatment of these sources, which are coupled through the N and C cycles in agricultural systems.

CO₂ Emissions from Agricultural Liming

IPCC (2006) recommends reporting CO₂ emissions from lime additions (in the form of crushed limestone (CaCO₃) and dolomite (CaMg(CO₃)₂) to agricultural soils. Limestone and dolomite are added by land managers to ameliorate acidification. When these compounds come in contact with acid soils, they degrade, thereby generating CO₂. The rate and ultimate magnitude of degradation of applied limestone and dolomite depends on the soil conditions, climate regime, and the type of mineral applied. Emissions from liming have fluctuated over the past nineteen years, ranging from 3.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. to 5.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. In 2009, liming of agricultural soils in the United States resulted in emissions of 4.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1.2 Tg C), representing about a 10 percent decrease in emissions since 1990 (see Table 7-20 and Table 7-21). The trend is driven entirely by the amount of lime and dolomite estimated to have been applied to soils over the time period.

Table 7-20: Emissions from Liming of Agricultural Soils (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Source	1990		2000		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Liming of Soils ¹	4.7		4.3		4.3	4.2	4.5	5.0	4.2

Note: Shaded areas indicate values based on a combination of data and projections. All other values are based on data only.

¹ Also includes emissions from liming on *Land Converted to Cropland*, *Grassland Remaining Grassland*, *Land Converted to Grassland*, and *Settlements Remaining Settlements*.

Table 7-21: Emissions from Liming of Agricultural Soils (Tg C)

Source	1990		2000		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Liming of Soils ¹	1.3		1.2		1.2	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.2

Note: Shaded areas indicate values based on a combination of data and projections. All other values are based on data only.

¹ Also includes emissions from liming on *Land Converted to Cropland*, *Grassland Remaining Grassland*, *Land Converted to Grassland*, and *Settlements Remaining Settlements*.

Methodology

CO₂ emissions from degradation of limestone and dolomite applied to agricultural soils were estimated using a Tier 2 methodology consistent with IPCC (2006). The annual amounts of limestone and dolomite applied (see Table 7-22) were multiplied by CO₂ emission factors from West and McBride (2005). These emission factors (0.059 metric ton C/metric ton limestone, 0.064 metric ton C/metric ton dolomite) are lower than the IPCC default emission factors because they account for the portion of agricultural lime that may leach through the soil and travel by rivers to the ocean (West and McBride 2005). This analysis of lime dissolution is based on liming occurring in the Mississippi River basin, where the vast majority of all U.S. liming takes place (West 2008). U.S. liming that does not occur in the Mississippi River basin tends to occur under similar soil and rainfall regimes, and, thus, the emission factor is appropriate for use across the United States (West 2008). The annual application rates of limestone and dolomite were derived from estimates and industry statistics provided in the *Minerals Yearbook* and *Mineral Industry Surveys* (Tepordei 1993 through 2006; Willett 2007a, b, 2009 through 2010; USGS 2008 through

2010). To develop these data, the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS; U.S. Bureau of Mines prior to 1997) obtained production and use information by surveying crushed stone manufacturers. Because some manufacturers were reluctant to provide information, the estimates of total crushed limestone and dolomite production and use were divided into three components: (1) production by end-use, as reported by manufacturers (i.e., “specified” production); (2) production reported by manufacturers without end-uses specified (i.e., “unspecified” production); and (3) estimated additional production by manufacturers who did not respond to the survey (i.e., “estimated” production).

The “unspecified” and “estimated” amounts of crushed limestone and dolomite applied to agricultural soils were calculated by multiplying the percentage of total “specified” limestone and dolomite production applied to agricultural soils by the total amounts of “unspecified” and “estimated” limestone and dolomite production. In other words, the proportion of total “unspecified” and “estimated” crushed limestone and dolomite that was applied to agricultural soils (as opposed to other uses of the stone) was assumed to be proportionate to the amount of “specified” crushed limestone and dolomite that was applied to agricultural soils. In addition, data were not available for 1990, 1992, and 2009 on the fractions of total crushed stone production that were limestone and dolomite, and on the fractions of limestone and dolomite production that were applied to soils. To estimate the 1990 and 1992 data, a set of average fractions were calculated using the 1991 and 1993 data. These average fractions were applied to the quantity of “total crushed stone produced or used” reported for 1990 and 1992 in the 1994 *Minerals Yearbook* (Tepordei 1996). To estimate 2009 data, the previous year’s fractions were applied to a 2009 estimate of total crushed stone presented in the USGS *Mineral Industry Surveys: Crushed Stone and Sand and Gravel in the First Quarter of 2010* (USGS 2010); thus, the 2009 data in Table 7-20 through Table 7-22 are shaded to indicate that they are based on a combination of data and projections.

The primary source for limestone and dolomite activity data is the *Minerals Yearbook*, published by the Bureau of Mines through 1994 and by the USGS from 1995 to the present. In 1994, the “Crushed Stone” chapter in the *Minerals Yearbook* began rounding (to the nearest thousand metric tons) quantities for total crushed stone produced or used. It then reported revised (rounded) quantities for each of the years from 1990 to 1993. In order to minimize the inconsistencies in the activity data, these revised production numbers have been used in all of the subsequent calculations. Since limestone and dolomite activity data are also available at the state level, the national-level estimates reported here were broken out by state, although state-level estimates are not reported here.

Table 7-22: Applied Minerals (Million Metric Tons)

Mineral	1990		2000		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Limestone	19.01		15.86		18.09	16.54	17.46	20.55	17.20
Dolomite	2.36		3.81		1.85	2.73	2.92	2.54	2.13

Note: These numbers represent amounts applied to *Cropland Remaining Cropland, Land Converted to Cropland, Grassland Remaining Grassland, Land Converted to Grassland, and Settlements Remaining Settlements*. Shaded areas indicate values based on a combination of data and projections. All other values are based on data only.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainty regarding limestone and dolomite activity data inputs was estimated at ± 15 percent and assumed to be uniformly distributed around the inventory estimate (Tepordei 2003b). Analysis of the uncertainty associated with the emission factors included the following: the fraction of agricultural lime dissolved by nitric acid versus the fraction that reacts with carbonic acid, and the portion of bicarbonate that leaches through the soil and is transported to the ocean. Uncertainty regarding the time associated with leaching and transport was not accounted for, but should not change the uncertainty associated with CO₂ emissions (West 2005). The uncertainties associated with the fraction of agricultural lime dissolved by nitric acid and the portion of bicarbonate that leaches through the soil were each modeled as a smoothed triangular distribution between ranges of zero percent to 100 percent. The uncertainty surrounding these two components largely drives the overall uncertainty estimates reported below. More information on the uncertainty estimates for Liming of Agricultural Soils is contained within the Uncertainty Annex.

A Monte Carlo (Tier 2) uncertainty analysis was applied to estimate the uncertainty of CO₂ emissions from liming. The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 7-23. CO₂ emissions from Liming of Agricultural Soils in 2008 were estimated to be between 0.1 and 8.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 97 percent below to 99 percent above the 2009 emission estimate of 4.2 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 7-23: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Liming of Agricultural Soils (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emissions Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Liming of Agricultural Soils ¹	CO ₂	4.2	0.1	8.4	-97%	+99%

^aRange of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

¹ Also includes emissions from liming on *Land Converted to Cropland*, *Grassland Remaining Grassland*, *Land Converted to Grassland*, and *Settlements Remaining Settlements*.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A QA/QC analysis was performed for data gathering and input, documentation, and calculation. The QA/QC analysis did not reveal any inaccuracies or incorrect input values.

Recalculations Discussion

Several adjustments were made in the current Inventory to improve the results. The quantity of applied minerals reported in the previous Inventory for 2007 has been revised; the updated activity data for 2007 are approximately 1,480 thousand metric tons greater than the data used for the previous Inventory, consequently, the reported emissions resulting from liming in 2007 increased by about 8.4 percent. In the previous Inventory, to estimate 2008 data, the previous year's fractions were applied to a 2008 estimate of total crushed stone presented in the USGS *Mineral Industry Surveys: Crushed Stone and Sand and Gravel in the First Quarter of 2009* (USGS 2009). Since publication of the previous Inventory, the *Minerals Yearbook* has published actual quantities of crushed stone sold or used by producers in the United States in 2008. These values have replaced those used in the previous Inventory to calculate the quantity of minerals applied to soil and the emissions from liming. The updated activity data for 2008 are approximately 5,460 thousand metric tons greater than the data used in the previous Inventory. As a result, the reported emissions from liming in 2008 increased by about 36 percent.

CO₂ Emissions from Urea Fertilization

The use of urea (CO(NH₂)₂) as fertilizer leads to emissions of CO₂ that was fixed during the industrial production process. Urea in the presence of water and urease enzymes is converted into ammonium (NH₄⁺), hydroxyl ion (OH⁻), and bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻). The bicarbonate then evolves into CO₂ and water. Emissions from urea fertilization in the United States totaled 3.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1.0 Tg C) in 2009 (Table 7-24 and Table 7-25). Emissions from urea fertilization have grown 49 percent between 1990 and 2009, due to an increase in the use of urea as fertilizer.

Table 7-24: CO₂ Emissions from Urea Fertilization in *Cropland Remaining Cropland* (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Source	1990		2000		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Urea Fertilization ¹	2.4		3.2		3.5	3.7	3.7	3.6	3.6

Note: Shaded areas indicate values based on a combination of data and projections. All other values are based on data only.

¹ Also includes emissions from urea fertilization on *Land Converted to Cropland*, *Grassland Remaining Grassland*, *Land Converted to Grassland*, *Settlements Remaining Settlements*, and *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land*.

Table 7-25: CO₂ Emissions from Urea Fertilization in *Cropland Remaining Cropland* (Tg C)

Source	1990		2000		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Urea Fertilization ¹	0.7		0.9		1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0

Note: Shaded areas indicate values based on a combination of data and projections. All other values are based on data only.

¹ Also includes emissions from urea fertilization on *Land Converted to Cropland*, *Grassland Remaining Grassland*, *Land Converted to Grassland*, *Settlements Remaining Settlements*, and *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land*.

Methodology

Carbon dioxide emissions from the application of urea to agricultural soils were estimated using the IPCC (2006) Tier 1 methodology. The annual amounts of urea fertilizer applied (see Table 7-26) were derived from state-level fertilizer sales data provided in *Commercial Fertilizers* (TVA 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994; AAPFCO 1995 through 2010) and were multiplied by the default IPCC (2006) emission factor of 0.20, which is equal to the C content of urea on an atomic weight basis. Because fertilizer sales data are reported in fertilizer years (July through June), a calculation was performed to convert the data to calendar years (January through December). According to historic monthly fertilizer use data (TVA 1992b), 65 percent of total fertilizer used in any fertilizer year is applied between January and June of that calendar year, and 35 percent of total fertilizer used in any fertilizer year is applied between July and December of the previous calendar year. Fertilizer sales data for the 2009 fertilizer year were not available in time for publication. Accordingly, urea application in the 2009 fertilizer year was assumed to be equal to that of the 2008 fertilizer year. Since 2010 fertilizer year data were not available, July through December 2009 fertilizer consumption was assumed to be equal to July through December 2008 fertilizer consumption; thus, the 2009 data in Table 7-24 through Table 7-26 are shaded to indicate that they are based on a combination of data and projections. State-level estimates of CO₂ emissions from the application of urea to agricultural soils were summed to estimate total emissions for the entire United States.

Table 7-26: Applied Urea (Million Metric Tons)

	1990		2000		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Urea Fertilizer ¹	3.30		4.38		4.78	4.98	5.10	4.92	4.92

Note: Shaded areas indicate values based on a combination of data and projections. All other values are based on data only.

¹These numbers represent amounts applied to all agricultural land, including *Land Converted to Cropland*, *Grassland Remaining Grassland*, *Land Converted to Grassland*, *Settlements Remaining Settlements*, and *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land*.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainty estimates are presented in Table 7-27 for Urea Fertilization. A Tier 2 Monte Carlo analysis was completed. The largest source of uncertainty was the default emission factor, which assumes that 100 percent of the C applied to soils is ultimately emitted into the environment as CO₂. This factor does not incorporate the possibility that some of the C may be retained in the soil. The emission estimate is, thus, likely to be high. In addition, each urea consumption data point has an associated uncertainty. Urea for non-fertilizer use, such as aircraft deicing, may be included in consumption totals; it was determined through personal communication with Fertilizer Regulatory Program Coordinator David L. Terry (2007), however, that this amount is most likely very small. Research into aircraft deicing practices also confirmed that urea is used minimally in the industry; a 1992 survey found a known annual usage of approximately 2,000 tons of urea for deicing; this would constitute 0.06 percent of the 1992 consumption of urea (EPA 2000). Similarly, surveys conducted from 2002 to 2005 indicate that total urea use for deicing at U.S. airports is estimated to be 3,740 MT per year, or less than 0.07 percent of the fertilizer total for 2007 (Itle 2009). Lastly, there is uncertainty surrounding the assumptions behind the calculation that converts fertilizer years to calendar years. CO₂ emissions from urea fertilization of agricultural soils in 2009 were estimated to be between 2.1 and 3.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 43 percent below to 3 percent above the 2009 emission estimate of 3.6 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 7-27: Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Urea Fertilization (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emissions Estimate ^a			
		Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Urea Fertilization	CO ₂	3.6	2.1	3.7	-43%	+3%

^aRange of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Note: These numbers represent amounts applied to all agricultural land, including *Land Converted to Cropland*, *Grassland Remaining Grassland*, *Land Converted to Grassland*, *Settlements Remaining Settlements*, and *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land*.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A QA/QC analysis was performed for data gathering and input, documentation, and calculation. Inventory reporting forms and text were reviewed. No errors were found.

Recalculations Discussion

July to December 2007 urea application data were updated with assumptions for fertilizer year 2008, and the 2007 emission estimate was revised accordingly. The activity data decreased about 800,000 metric tons for 2007 and this change resulted in an approximately 3 percent decrease in emissions in 2007 relative to the previous Inventory. In the previous Inventory, the application for this period was calculated based on application during July to December 2006. January to June 2008 data were also used to update 2008 emission estimates. The activity data decreased about 270,000 metric tons for 2008, resulting in an approximately 5 percent decrease in emissions in 2008 relative to the previous Inventory.

Planned Improvements

The primary planned improvement is to investigate using a Tier 2 or Tier 3 approach, which would utilize country-specific information to estimate a more precise emission factor.

7.5. Land Converted to Cropland (IPCC Source Category 5B2)

Land Converted to Cropland includes all cropland in an inventory year that had been another land use at any point during the previous 20 years¹⁸⁵ according to the USDA NRI land-use survey (USDA-NRCS 2000). Consequently, lands are retained in this category for 20 years as recommended by the IPCC guidelines (IPCC 2006) unless there is another land-use change. The Inventory includes all privately-owned croplands in the conterminous United States and Hawaii, but there is a minor amount of cropland on federal lands that is not currently included in the estimation of C stock changes, leading to a discrepancy between the total amount of managed area in *Land Converted to Cropland* (see Section 7.1) and the cropland area included in the Inventory. It is important to note that plans are being made to include these areas in future C inventories.

Background on agricultural C stock changes is provided in *Cropland Remaining Cropland* and will only be summarized here for *Land Converted to Cropland*. Soils are the largest pool of C in agricultural land, and also have the greatest potential for storage or release of C, because biomass and dead organic matter C pools are relatively small and ephemeral compared with soils. The IPCC (2006) recommends reporting changes in soil organic C stocks due to: (1) agricultural land-use and management activities on mineral soils, and (2) agricultural land-use and management activities on organic soils.¹⁸⁶

Land-use and management of mineral soils in *Land Converted to Cropland* generally led to relatively small increases in soil C during the 1990s but the pattern changed to small losses of C through the latter part of the time series (Table 7-28 and Table 7-29). The total rate of change in soil C stocks was 5.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1.6 Tg C) in 2009. Mineral soils were estimated to lose 3.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.9 Tg C) in 2009, while drainage and cultivation of organic soils led to annual losses of 2.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.7 Tg C) in 2009.

Table 7-28: Net CO₂ Flux from Soil C Stock Changes in *Land Converted to Cropland* (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Soil Type	1990		2000		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Mineral Soils	(0.3)		(0.3)		3.3	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.3
Organic Soils	2.4		2.6		2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6
Total Net Flux	2.2		2.4		5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9

Note: Parentheses indicate net sequestration. Shaded areas indicate values based on a combination of historical data and projections. All other values are based on historical data only. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 7-29: Net CO₂ Flux from Soil C Stock Changes in *Land Converted to Cropland* (Tg C)

¹⁸⁵ NRI points were classified according to land-use history records starting in 1982 when the NRI survey began, and consequently the classifications were based on less than 20 years from 1990 to 2001.

¹⁸⁶ CO₂ emissions associated with liming are also estimated but included in a separate section of the report.

Soil Type	1990		2000		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Mineral Soils	(0.1)		(0.1)		0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9
Organic Soils	0.7		0.7		0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
Total Net Flux	0.6		0.6		1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6

Note: Parentheses indicate net sequestration. Shaded areas indicate values based on a combination of historical data and projections. All other values are based on historical data only. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

The spatial variability in annual CO₂ flux associated with C stock changes in mineral and organic soils for *Land Converted to Cropland* is displayed in Figure 7-7 and Figure 7-8. While a large portion of the United States had net losses of soil C for *Land Converted to Cropland*, there were some notable areas with net C accumulation in the Great Plains, Midwest, mid-Atlantic states. These areas were gaining C following conversion, because the land had been brought into hay production, including grass and legume hay, leading to enhanced plant production relative to the previous land use, and thus higher C input to the soil. Emissions from organic soils were largest in California, Florida, and the upper Midwest, which coincided with largest concentrations of cultivated organic soils in the United States.

Figure 7-7: Total Net Annual CO₂ Flux for Mineral Soils under Agricultural Management within States, 2009, *Land Converted to Cropland*

Figure 7-8: Total Net Annual CO₂ Flux for Organic Soils under Agricultural Management within States, 2009, *Land Converted to Cropland*

Methodology

The following section includes a brief description of the methodology used to estimate changes in soil C stocks due to agricultural land-use and management activities on mineral and organic soils for *Land Converted to Cropland*. Further elaboration on the methodologies and data used to estimate stock changes for mineral and organic soils are provided in the *Cropland Remaining Cropland* section and Annex 3.13.

Soil C stock changes were estimated for *Land Converted to Cropland* according to land-use histories recorded in the USDA NRI survey (USDA-NRCS 2000). Land-use and some management information (e.g., crop type, soil attributes, and irrigation) were originally collected for each NRI point on a 5-year cycle beginning in 1982. However, the NRI program initiated annual data collection in 1998, and the annual data are currently available through 2003. NRI points were classified as *Land Converted to Cropland* in a given year between 1990 and 2009 if the land use was cropland but had been another use during the previous 20 years. Cropland includes all land used to produce food or fiber, or forage that is harvested and used as feed (e.g., hay and silage).

Mineral Soil Carbon Stock Changes

A Tier 3 model-based approach was applied to estimate C stock changes for soils on *Land Converted to Cropland* used to produce a majority of all crops (Ogle et al. 2010). Soil C stock changes on the remaining soils were estimated with the IPCC Tier 2 method (Ogle et al. 2003), including land used to produce vegetable, tobacco, perennial/horticultural crops, and rice; land on very gravelly, cobbly, or shaley soils (greater than 35 percent by volume); and land converted from forest or federal ownership.¹⁸⁷

Tier 3 Approach

Mineral SOC stocks and stock changes were estimated using the Century biogeochemical model for the Tier 3

¹⁸⁷ Federal land is not a land use, but rather an ownership designation that is treated as forest or nominal grassland for purposes of these calculations. The specific use for federal lands is not identified in the NRI survey (USDA-NRCS 2000).

methods. National estimates were obtained by using the model to simulate historical land-use change patterns as recorded in the USDA National Resources Inventory (USDA-NRCS 2000). The methods used for *Land Converted to Cropland* are the same as those described in the Tier 3 portion of *Cropland Remaining Cropland* section for mineral soils (see *Cropland Remaining Cropland* Tier 3 methods section and Annex 3.13 for additional information).

Tier 2 Approach

For the mineral soils not included in the Tier 3 analysis, SOC stock changes were estimated using a Tier 2 Approach for *Land Converted to Cropland* as described in the Tier 2 portion of *Cropland Remaining Cropland* section for mineral soils (see *Cropland Remaining Cropland* Tier 2 methods section for additional information).

Organic Soil Carbon Stock Changes

Annual C emissions from drained organic soils in *Land Converted to Cropland* were estimated using the Tier 2 method provided in IPCC (2003, 2006), with U.S.-specific C loss rates (Ogle et al. 2003) rather than default IPCC rates. The final estimates included a measure of uncertainty as determined from the Monte Carlo simulation with 50,000 iterations. Emissions were based on the 1992 and 1997 *Land Converted to Cropland* areas from the 1997 *National Resources Inventory* (USDA-NRCS 2000). The annual flux estimated for 1992 was applied to 1990 through 1992, and the annual flux estimated for 1997 was applied to 1993 through 2009.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainty analysis for mineral soil C stock changes using the Tier 3 and Tier 2 approaches were based on the same method described for *Cropland Remaining Cropland*, except that the uncertainty inherent in the structure of the Century model was not addressed. The uncertainty for annual C emission estimates from drained organic soils in *Land Converted to Cropland* was estimated using the Tier 2 approach, as described in the *Cropland Remaining Cropland* section.

Uncertainty estimates are presented in Table 7-30 for each subsource (i.e., mineral soil C stocks and organic soil C stocks) disaggregated to the level of the inventory methodology employed (i.e., Tier 2 and Tier 3). Uncertainty for the portions of the Inventory estimated with Tier 2 and 3 approaches was derived using a Monte Carlo approach (see Annex 3.13 for further discussion). A combined uncertainty estimate for changes in agricultural soil C stocks is also included. Uncertainty estimates from each component were combined using the error propagation equation in accordance with IPCC (2006), i.e., by taking the square root of the sum of the squares of the standard deviations of the uncertain quantities. The combined uncertainty for soil C stocks in *Land Converted to Cropland* was estimated to be 40 percent below and 36 percent above the inventory estimate of 5.9 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 7-30: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for Soil C Stock Changes occurring within *Land Converted to Cropland* (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	2009 Flux Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Flux Estimate			
		(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Land Converted to Cropland, Tier 3 Inventory Methodology	(0.8)	(1.5)	(0.1)	-84%	+84%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Land Converted to Cropland, Tier 2 Inventory Methodology	4.1	2.3	5.8	-44%	+41%
Organic Soil C Stocks: Land Converted to Cropland, Tier 2 Inventory Methodology	2.6	1.2	3.7	-53%	+41%
Combined Uncertainty for Flux associated with Soil Carbon Stock Change in Land Converted to Cropland	5.9	3.5	8.1	-40%	+36%

Note: Parentheses indicate net sequestration. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section,

above.

QA/QC and Verification

See QA/QC and Verification section under *Cropland Remaining Cropland*.

Planned Improvements

The empirically-based uncertainty estimator described in the *Cropland Remaining Cropland* section for the Tier 3 approach has not been developed to estimate uncertainties related to the structure of the Century model for *Land Converted to Cropland*, but this is a planned improvement. This improvement will produce a more rigorous assessment of uncertainty. See Planned Improvements section under *Cropland Remaining Cropland* for additional planned improvements.

7.6. Grassland Remaining Grassland (IPCC Source Category 5C1)

Grassland Remaining Grassland includes all grassland in an inventory year that had been grassland for the previous 20 years¹⁸⁸ according to the USDA NRI land use survey (USDA-NRCS 2000). The Inventory includes all privately-owned grasslands in the conterminous United States and Hawaii, but does not address changes in C stocks for grasslands on federal lands, leading to a discrepancy between the total amount of managed area in *Grassland Remaining Grassland* (see Section 7.1) and the grassland area included in the Inventory. While federal grasslands probably have minimal changes in land management and C stocks, plans are being made to further evaluate and potentially include these areas in future C inventories.

Background on agricultural C stock changes is provided in the *Cropland Remaining Cropland* section and will only be summarized here for *Grassland Remaining Grassland*. Soils are the largest pool of C in agricultural land, and also have the greatest potential for storage or release of C, because biomass and dead organic matter C pools are relatively small and ephemeral compared to soils. IPCC (2006) recommends reporting changes in soil organic C stocks due to: (1) agricultural land-use and management activities on mineral soils, and (2) agricultural land-use and management activities on organic soils.¹⁸⁹

Land-use and management of mineral soils in *Grassland Remaining Grassland* increased soil C, while organic soils lost relatively small amounts of C in each year 1990 through 2009. Due to the pattern for mineral soils, the overall trend was a gain in soil C over the time series although the rates varied from year to year, with a net removal of 8.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (2.3 Tg C) in 2009. There was considerable variation over the time series driven by variability in weather patterns and associated interaction with land management activity. The change rates on per hectare basis were small, however, even in the years with larger total changes in stocks. Overall, flux rates declined by 43.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (12.0 Tg C) when comparing the net change in soil C from 1990 and 2009.

Table 7-31: Net CO₂ Flux from Soil C Stock Changes in *Grassland Remaining Grassland* (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Soil Type	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Mineral Soils	(56.0)	(56.3)	(12.6)	(12.4)	(12.3)	(12.2)	(12.0)
Organic Soils	3.9	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7
Total Net Flux	(52.2)	(52.6)	(8.9)	(8.8)	(8.6)	(8.5)	(8.3)

Note: Parentheses indicate net sequestration. Shaded areas indicate values based on a combination of historical data and projections. All other values are based on historical data only. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 7-32: Net CO₂ Flux from Soil C Stock Changes in *Grassland Remaining Grassland* (Tg C)

Soil Type	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Mineral Soils	(15.3)	(15.3)	(3.4)	(3.4)	(3.4)	(3.3)	(3.3)
Organic Soils	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Total Net Flux	(14.2)	(14.3)	(2.4)	(2.4)	(2.3)	(2.3)	(2.3)

¹⁸⁸ NRI points were classified according to land-use history records starting in 1982 when the NRI survey began, and consequently the classifications were based on less than 20 years from 1990 to 2001.

¹⁸⁹ CO₂ emissions associated with liming are also estimated but included in a separate section of the report.

Note: Parentheses indicate net sequestration. Shaded areas indicate values based on a combination of historical data and projections. All other values are based on historical data only. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

The spatial variability in annual CO₂ flux associated with C stock changes in mineral and organic soils is displayed in Figure 7-9 and Figure 7-10. Grassland gained soil organic C in several regions during 2009, including the Northeast, Midwest, Southwest and far western states; although these were relatively small increases in C on a per-hectare basis. Emission rates from drained organic soils were highest along the southeastern coastal region, in the northeast central United States surrounding the Great Lakes, and along the central and northern portions of the West Coast.

Figure 7-9: Total Net Annual CO₂ Flux for Mineral Soils under Agricultural Management within States, 2009, *Grassland Remaining Grassland*

Figure 7-10: Total Net Annual CO₂ Flux for Organic Soils under Agricultural Management within States, 2009, *Grassland Remaining Grassland*

Methodology

The following section includes a brief description of the methodology used to estimate changes in soil C stocks due to agricultural land-use and management activities on mineral and organic soils for *Grassland Remaining Grassland*. Further elaboration on the methodologies and data used to estimate stock changes from mineral and organic soils are provided in the *Cropland Remaining Cropland* section and Annex 3.13.

Soil C stock changes were estimated for *Grassland Remaining Grassland* according to land-use histories recorded in the USDA NRI survey (USDA-NRCS 2000). Land-use and some management information (e.g., crop type, soil attributes, and irrigation) were originally collected for each NRI point on a 5-year cycle beginning in 1982. However, the NRI program initiated annual data collection in 1998, and the annual data are currently available through 2003. NRI points were classified as *Grassland Remaining Grassland* in a given year between 1990 and 2009 if the land use had been grassland for 20 years. Grassland includes pasture and rangeland used for grass forage production, where the primary use is livestock grazing. Rangelands are typically extensive areas of native grassland that are not intensively managed, while pastures are often seeded grassland, possibly following tree removal, that may or may not be improved with practices such as irrigation and interseeding legumes.

Mineral Soil Carbon Stock Changes

An IPCC Tier 3 model-based approach was applied to estimate C stock changes for most mineral soils in *Grassland Remaining Grassland*. The C stock changes for the remaining soils were estimated with an IPCC Tier 2 method (Ogle et al. 2003), including gravelly, cobbly, or shaley soils (greater than 35 percent by volume) and additional stock changes associated with sewage sludge amendments.

Tier 3 Approach

Mineral soil organic C stocks and stock changes for *Grassland Remaining Grassland* were estimated using the Century biogeochemical model, as described in *Cropland Remaining Cropland*. Historical land-use and management patterns were used in the Century simulations as recorded in the USDA National Resources Inventory (NRI) survey, with supplemental information on fertilizer use and rates from the USDA Economic Research Service Cropping Practices Survey (ERS 1997) and National Agricultural Statistics Service (NASS 1992, 1999, 2004). Frequency and rates of manure application to grassland during 1997 were estimated from data compiled by the USDA Natural Resources Conservation Service (Edmonds, et al. 2003), and then adjusted using county-level estimates of manure available for application in other years. Specifically, county-scale ratios of manure available for application to soils in other years relative to 1997 were used to adjust the area amended with manure (see Annex 3.13 for further details). Greater availability of managed manure N relative to 1997 was, thus, assumed to increase the area amended with manure, while reduced availability of manure N relative to 1997 was assumed to reduce the

amended area.

The amount of manure produced by each livestock type was calculated for managed and unmanaged waste management systems based on methods described in the Manure Management Section (Section 6.2) and Annex (Annex 3.10). In contrast to manure amendments, Pasture/Range/Paddock (PRP) manure N deposition was estimated internally in the Century model, as part of the grassland system simulations (i.e., PRP manure deposition was not an external input into the model). See the Tier 3 methods in *Cropland Remaining Cropland* section for additional discussion on the Tier 3 methodology for mineral soils.

Tier 2 Approach

The Tier 2 approach is based on the same methods described in the Tier 2 portion of *Cropland Remaining Cropland* section for mineral soils (see *Cropland Remaining Cropland* Tier 2 methods section and Annex 3.13 for additional information).

Additional Mineral C Stock Change Calculations

Annual C flux estimates for mineral soils between 1990 and 2009 were adjusted to account for additional C stock changes associated with sewage sludge amendments using a Tier 2 method. Estimates of the amounts of sewage sludge N applied to agricultural land were derived from national data on sewage sludge generation, disposition, and N content. Total sewage sludge generation data for 1988, 1996, and 1998, in dry mass units, were obtained from an EPA report (EPA 1999) and estimates for 2004 were obtained from an independent national biosolids survey (NEBRA 2007). These values were linearly interpolated to estimate values for the intervening years. N application rates from Kellogg et al. (2000) were used to determine the amount of area receiving sludge amendments. Although sewage sludge can be added to land managed for other land uses, it was assumed that agricultural amendments occur in grassland. Cropland is assumed to rarely be amended with sewage sludge due to the high metal content and other pollutants in human waste. The soil C storage rate was estimated at 0.38 metric tons C per hectare per year for sewage sludge amendments to grassland. The stock change rate is based on country-specific factors and the IPCC default method (see Annex 3.13 for further discussion).

Organic Soil Carbon Stock Changes

Annual C emissions from drained organic soils in *Grassland Remaining Grassland* were estimated using the Tier 2 method provided in IPCC (2003, 2006), which utilizes U.S.-specific C loss rates (Ogle et al. 2003) rather than default IPCC rates. Emissions were based on the 1992 and 1997 *Grassland Remaining Grassland* areas from the *1997 National Resources Inventory* (USDA-NRCS 2000). The annual flux estimated for 1992 was applied to 1990 through 1992, and the annual flux estimated for 1997 was applied to 1993 through 2009.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainty estimates are presented in Table 7-33 for each subsource (i.e., mineral soil C stocks and organic soil C stocks) disaggregated to the level of the inventory methodology employed (i.e., Tier 2 and Tier 3). Uncertainty for the portions of the Inventory estimated with Tier 2 and 3 approaches was derived using a Monte Carlo approach (see Annex 3.13 for further discussion). A combined uncertainty estimate for changes in agricultural soil C stocks is also included. Uncertainty estimates from each component were combined using the error propagation equation in accordance with IPCC (2006), i.e., by taking the square root of the sum of the squares of the standard deviations of the uncertain quantities. The combined uncertainty for soil C stocks in *Grassland Remaining Grassland* was estimated to be 32 percent below and 25 percent above the inventory estimate of -8.3 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 7-33: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for C Stock Changes occurring within *Grassland Remaining Grassland* (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	2009 Flux Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Flux Estimate			
		(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Mineral Soil C Stocks Grassland Remaining Grassland, Tier 3 Methodology	(10.6)	(11.4)	(9.8)	-7%	+7%

Mineral Soil C Stocks: Grassland Remaining Grassland, Tier 2 Methodology	(0.2)	(0.3)	0.0	-89%	+127%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Grassland Remaining Grassland, Tier 2 Methodology (Change in Soil C due to Sewage Sludge Amendments)	(1.2)	(1.9)	(0.6)	-50%	+50%
Organic Soil C Stocks: Grassland Remaining Grassland, Tier 2 Methodology	3.7	1.2	5.5	-66%	+49%
Combined Uncertainty for Flux Associated with Agricultural Soil Carbon Stock Change in Grassland Remaining Grassland	(8.3)	(11.0)	(6.3)	-32%	+25%

Note: Parentheses indicate net sequestration. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Uncertainties in Mineral Soil Carbon Stock Changes

The uncertainty analysis for *Grassland Remaining Grassland* using the Tier 3 approach and Tier 2 approach were based on the same method described for *Cropland Remaining Cropland*, except that the uncertainty inherent in the structure of the Century model was not addressed. See the Tier 3 approach for mineral soils under the *Cropland Remaining Cropland* section for additional discussion.

A ± 50 percent uncertainty was assumed for additional adjustments to the soil C stocks between 1990 and 2009 to account for additional C stock changes associated with amending grassland soils with sewage sludge.

Uncertainties in Soil Carbon Stock Changes for Organic Soils

Uncertainty in C emissions from organic soils was estimated using country-specific factors and a Monte Carlo analysis. Probability distribution functions for emission factors were derived from a synthesis of 10 studies, and combined with uncertainties in the NRI land use and management data for organic soils in the Monte Carlo analysis. See the Tier 2 section under mineral soils of *Cropland Remaining Cropland* for additional discussion.

QA/QC and Verification

Quality control measures included checking input data, model scripts, and results to ensure data were properly handled through the inventory process. A minor error was found in the post-processing results to compute the final totals, which was corrected. No additional errors were found.

Recalculations Discussion

There were minor changes in the estimated area of grasslands associated with reconciling the forestland areas from the Forest Inventory and Analysis (FIA) survey with the data from the National Resources Inventory (NRI) (see section 7.1 for more information). The revised areas led to small changes in the soil C stock changes for *Grassland Remaining Grassland*.

Planned Improvements

The main planned improvement for the next Inventory is to integrate the assessments of soil C stock changes and soil N₂O emissions into a single analysis. This improvement will ensure that the N and C cycles are treated consistently in the Inventory, which is important because the cycles of these elements are linked through plant and soil processes in agricultural lands. This improvement will include the development of an empirically-based uncertainty analysis, which will provide a more rigorous assessment of uncertainty. See Planned Improvements section under *Cropland Remaining Cropland* for additional planned improvements.

7.7. Land Converted to Grassland (IPCC Source Category 5C2)

Land Converted to Grassland includes all grassland in an inventory year that had been in another land use at any point during the previous 20 years¹⁹⁰ according to the USDA NRI land-use survey (USDA-NRCS 2000).

Consequently, lands are retained in this category for 20 years as recommended by IPCC (2006) unless there is another land use change. The Inventory includes all privately-owned grasslands in the conterminous United States and Hawaii, but does not address changes in C stocks for grasslands on federal lands, leading to a discrepancy between the total amount of managed area for *Land Converted to Grassland* (see Section 7.1) and the grassland area included in the Inventory. It is important to note that plans are being made to include these areas in future C inventories.

Background on agricultural C stock changes is provided in *Cropland Remaining Cropland* and will only be summarized here for *Land Converted to Grassland*. Soils are the largest pool of C in agricultural land, and also have the greatest potential for storage or release of C, because biomass and dead organic matter C pools are relatively small and ephemeral compared with soils. IPCC (2006) recommend reporting changes in soil organic C stocks due to: (1) agricultural land-use and management activities on mineral soils, and (2) agricultural land-use and management activities on organic soils.¹⁹¹

Land-use and management of mineral soils in *Land Converted to Grassland* led to an increase in soil C stocks from 1990 through 2009, which was largely due to annual cropland conversion to pasture (see Table 7-34 and Table 7-35). For example, the stock change rates were estimated to remove 20.3 Tg CO₂ Eq./yr (5.5 Tg C) and 24.5 Tg CO₂ Eq./yr (6.7 Tg C) from mineral soils in 1990 and 2009, respectively. Drainage of organic soils for grazing management led to losses varying from 0.5 to 0.9 Tg CO₂ Eq./yr (0.1 to 0.2 Tg C).

Table 7-34: Net CO₂ Flux from Soil C Stock Changes for *Land Converted to Grassland* (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Soil Type	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Mineral Soils ^a	(20.3)	(28.1)	(25.3)	(25.1)	(24.9)	(24.7)	(24.5)
Organic Soils	0.5	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9
Total Net Flux	(19.8)	(27.2)	(24.4)	(24.2)	(24.0)	(23.8)	(23.6)

Note: Parentheses indicate net sequestration. Shaded areas indicate values based on a combination of historical data and projections. All other values are based on historical data only. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

^a Stock changes due to application of sewage sludge are reported in *Grassland Remaining Grassland*.

Table 7-35: Net CO₂ Flux from Soil C Stock Changes for *Land Converted to Grassland* (Tg C)

Soil Type	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Mineral Soils ^a	(5.5)	(7.7)	(6.9)	(6.8)	(6.8)	(6.7)	(6.7)
Organic Soils	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Total Net Flux	(5.4)	(7.4)	(6.7)	(6.6)	(6.5)	(6.5)	(6.4)

Note: Parentheses indicate net sequestration. Shaded areas indicate values based on a combination of historical data and projections. All other values are based on historical data only. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

^a Stock changes due to application of sewage sludge in *Land Converted to Grassland* are reported in *Grassland Remaining Grassland*.

The spatial variability in annual CO₂ flux associated with C stock changes in mineral soils is displayed in Figure 7-11 and Figure 7-12. Soil C stock increased in most states for *Land Converted to Grassland*. The largest gains were in the South-Central region, Midwest, and northern Great Plains. The patterns were driven by conversion of annual cropland into continuous pasture. Emissions from organic soils were largest in California, Florida, and the upper Midwest, coinciding with largest concentrations of organic soils in the United States that are used for agricultural production.

Figure 7-11: Total Net Annual CO₂ Flux for Mineral Soils under Agricultural Management within States, 2009,

¹⁹⁰ NRI points were classified according to land-use history records starting in 1982 when the NRI survey began, and consequently the classifications were based on less than 20 years from 1990 to 2001.

¹⁹¹ CO₂ emissions associated with liming are also estimated but included in a separate section of the report.

Figure 7-12: Total Net Annual CO₂ Flux for Organic Soils under Agricultural Management within States, 2009, *Land Converted to Grassland*

Methodology

This section includes a brief description of the methodology used to estimate changes in soil C stocks due to agricultural land-use and management activities on mineral soils for *Land Converted to Grassland*. Biomass C stock changes are not explicitly included in this category but losses of associated with conversion of forest to grassland are included in the *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* section. Further elaboration on the methodologies and data used to estimate stock changes from mineral and organic soils are provided in the *Cropland Remaining Cropland* section and Annex 3.13.

Soil C stock changes were estimated for *Land Converted to Grassland* according to land-use histories recorded in the USDA NRI survey (USDA-NRCS 2000). Land-use and some management information (e.g., crop type, soil attributes, and irrigation) were originally collected for each NRI point on a 5-year cycle beginning in 1982. However, the NRI program initiated annual data collection in 1998, and the annual data are currently available through 2003. NRI points were classified as *Land Converted to Grassland* in a given year between 1990 and 2009 if the land use was grassland, but had been another use in the previous 20 years. Grassland includes pasture and rangeland used for grass forage production, where the primary use is livestock grazing. Rangeland typically includes extensive areas of native grassland that are not intensively managed, while pastures are often seeded grassland, possibly following tree removal, that may or may not be improved with practices such as irrigation and interseeding legumes.

Mineral Soil Carbon Stock Changes

An IPCC Tier 3 model-based approach was applied to estimate C stock changes for *Land Converted to Grassland* on most mineral soils. C stock changes on the remaining soils were estimated with an IPCC Tier 2 approach (Ogle et al. 2003), including prior cropland used to produce vegetables, tobacco, perennial/horticultural crops, and rice; land areas with very gravelly, cobbly, or shaley soils (greater than 35 percent by volume); and land converted from forest or federal ownership.¹⁹² A Tier 2 approach was also used to estimate additional changes in mineral soil C stocks due to sewage sludge amendments. However, stock changes associated with sewage sludge amendments are reported in the *Grassland Remaining Grassland* section.

Tier 3 Approach

Mineral SOC stocks and stock changes were estimated using the Century biogeochemical model as described for *Grassland Remaining Grassland*. Historical land-use and management patterns were used in the Century simulations as recorded in the NRI survey, with supplemental information on fertilizer use and rates from the USDA Economic Research Service Cropping Practices Survey (ERS 1997) and the National Agricultural Statistics Service (NASS 1992, 1999, 2004) (see *Grassland Remaining Grassland* Tier 3 methods section for additional information).

Tier 2 Approach

The Tier 2 approach used for *Land Converted to Grassland* on mineral soils is the same as described for *Cropland Remaining Cropland* (See *Cropland Remaining Cropland* Tier 2 Approach and Annex 3.13 for additional information).

¹⁹² Federal land is not a land use, but rather an ownership designation that is treated as forest or nominal grassland for purposes of these calculations. The specific use for federal lands is not identified in the NRI survey (USDA-NRCS 2000).

Organic Soil Carbon Stock Changes

Annual C emissions from drained organic soils in *Land Converted to Grassland* were estimated using the Tier 2 method provided in IPCC (2003, 2006), which utilizes U.S.-specific C loss rates (Ogle et al. 2003) rather than default IPCC rates. Emissions were based on the 1992 and 1997 *Land Converted to Grassland* areas from the 1997 *National Resources Inventory* (USDA-NRCS 2000). The annual flux estimated for 1992 was applied to 1990 through 1992, and the annual flux estimated for 1997 was applied to 1993 through 2009.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainty analysis for mineral soil C stock changes using the Tier 3 and Tier 2 approaches were based on the same method described in *Cropland Remaining Cropland*, except that the uncertainty inherent in the structure of the Century model was not addressed. The uncertainty or annual C emission estimates from drained organic soils in *Land Converted to Grassland* was estimated using the Tier 2 approach, as described in the *Cropland Remaining Cropland* section.

Uncertainty estimates are presented in Table 7-36 for each subsource (i.e., mineral soil C stocks and organic soil C stocks), disaggregated to the level of the inventory methodology employed (i.e., Tier 2 and Tier 3). Uncertainty for the portions of the Inventory estimated with Tier 2 and 3 approaches was derived using a Monte Carlo approach (see Annex 3.13 for further discussion). A combined uncertainty estimate for changes in agricultural soil C stocks is also included. Uncertainty estimates from each component were combined using the error propagation equation in accordance with IPCC (2006) (i.e., by taking the square root of the sum of the squares of the standard deviations of the uncertain quantities). The combined uncertainty for soil C stocks in *Land Converted to Grassland* ranged from 15 percent below to 15 percent above the 2009 estimate of -23.6 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 7-36: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for Soil C Stock Changes occurring within *Land Converted to Grassland* (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	2009 Flux Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Flux Estimate			
		(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Land Converted to Grassland, Tier 3 Inventory Methodology	(19.5)	(22.2)	(16.7)	-14%	+14%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Land Converted to Grassland, Tier 2 Inventory Methodology	(5.0)	(7.0)	(2.8)	-39%	+43%
Organic Soil C Stocks: Land Converted to Grassland, Tier 2 Inventory Methodology	0.9	0.2	1.8	-76%	+104%
Combined Uncertainty for Flux associated with Agricultural Soil Carbon Stocks in Land Converted to Grassland	(23.6)	(27.0)	(20.0)	-15%	+15%

Note: Parentheses indicate net sequestration. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

See the QA/QC and Verification section under *Grassland Remaining Grassland*.

Recalculations Discussion

There were minor changes in the current Inventory relative to the previous version in the estimated area of grasslands associated with reconciling the forestland areas from the Forest Inventory and Analysis (FIA) survey with the data from the National Resources Inventory (NRI) (see section 7.1 for more information). The revised areas led to small changes in the soil C stock changes for *Land Converted to Grassland*.

Planned Improvements

The main planned improvement for the next Inventory is to integrate the assessments of soil C stock changes and soil nitrous oxide emissions into a single analysis. This improvement will ensure that the nitrogen and carbon cycles are treated consistently in the national inventory, which is important because the cycles of these elements are linked through plant and soil processes in agricultural lands. This improvement will include the development of an empirically-based uncertainty analysis, which will provide a more rigorous assessment of uncertainty. See Planned Improvements section under *Cropland Remaining Cropland* for additional planned improvements.

7.8. Wetlands Remaining Wetlands

Peatlands Remaining Peatlands

Emissions from Managed Peatlands

Managed peatlands are peatlands which have been cleared and drained for the production of peat. The production cycle of a managed peatland has three phases: land conversion in preparation for peat extraction (e.g., draining, and clearing surface biomass), extraction (which results in the emissions reported under *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands*), and abandonment, restoration or conversion of the land to another use.

CO₂ emissions from the removal of biomass and the decay of drained peat constitute the major greenhouse gas flux from managed peatlands. Managed peatlands may also emit CH₄ and N₂O. The natural production of CH₄ is largely reduced but not entirely shut down when peatlands are drained in preparation for peat extraction (Strack et al., 2004 as cited in IPCC 2006); however, CH₄ emissions are assumed to be insignificant under Tier 1 (IPCC, 2006). N₂O emissions from managed peatlands depend on site fertility. In addition, abandoned and restored peatlands continue to release greenhouse gas emissions, and at present no methodology is provided by IPCC (2006) to estimate greenhouse gas emissions or removals from restored peatlands. This inventory estimates both CO₂ and N₂O emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* in accordance with Tier 1 IPCC (2006) guidelines.

CO₂ and N₂O Emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands*

IPCC (2006) recommends reporting CO₂ and N₂O emissions from lands undergoing active peat extraction (i.e., *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands*) as part of the estimate for emissions from managed wetlands. Peatlands occur in wetland areas where plant biomass has sunk to the bottom of water bodies and water-logged areas and exhausted the oxygen supply below the water surface during the course of decay. Due to these anaerobic conditions, much of the plant matter does not decompose but instead forms layers of peat over decades and centuries. In the United States, peat is extracted for horticulture and landscaping growing media, and for a wide variety of industrial, personal care, and other products. It has not been used for fuel in the United States for many decades. Peat is harvested from two types of peat deposits in the United States: sphagnum bogs in northern states and wetlands in states further south. The peat from sphagnum bogs in northern states, which is nutrient poor, is generally corrected for acidity and mixed with fertilizer. Production from more southerly states is relatively coarse (i.e., fibrous) but nutrient rich.

IPCC (2006) recommends considering both on-site and off-site emissions when estimating CO₂ emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* using the Tier 1 approach. Current methodologies estimate only on-site N₂O emissions, since off-site N₂O estimates are complicated by the risk of double-counting emissions from nitrogen fertilizers added to horticultural peat. On-site emissions from managed peatlands occur as the land is cleared of vegetation and the underlying peat is exposed to sun and weather. As this occurs, some peat deposit is lost and CO₂ is emitted from the oxidation of the peat. On-site N₂O is emitted during draining depending on site fertility and if the deposit contains significant amounts of organic nitrogen in inactive form. Draining land in preparation for peat extraction allows bacteria to convert the nitrogen into nitrates which leach to the surface where they are reduced to N₂O.

Off-site CO₂ emissions from managed peatlands occur from the horticultural and landscaping use of peat. CO₂ emissions occur as the nutrient-poor (but now fertilizer-enriched) peat is used in bedding plants, other greenhouse and plant nursery production, and by consumers, and as nutrient-rich (but relatively coarse) peat is used directly in landscaping, athletic fields, golf courses, and plant nurseries. Most of the CO₂ emissions from peat occur off-site, as the peat is processed and sold to firms which, in the United States, use it predominately for horticultural purposes. The magnitude of the CO₂ emitted from peat depends on whether the peat has been extracted from nutrient-rich or

nutrient-poor peat deposits.

Total emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* were estimated to be 1.095 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009 (see Table 7-37) comprising 1.090 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1,090 Gg) of CO₂ and 0.005 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.016 Gg) of N₂O. Total emissions in 2009 were about 10 percent larger than total emissions in 2008, with the increase due to the higher peat production reported in Alaska in 2009.

Total emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* have fluctuated between 0.88 and 1.23 Tg CO₂ Eq. across the time series with a decreasing trend from 1990 until 1994 followed by an increasing trend through 2000. Since 2000, total emissions show a decreasing trend until 2006 followed by an increasing trend in recent years. CO₂ emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* have fluctuated between 0.88 and 1.23 Tg CO₂ across the time series and drive the trends in total emissions. N₂O emissions remained close to zero across the time series, with a decreasing trend from 1990 until 1995 followed by an increasing trend through 2000. N₂O emissions decreased between 2000 and 2008, followed by a leveling off in 2009.

Table 7-37: Emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas	1990		2000		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO ₂	1.0		1.2		1.1	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1
N ₂ O	+		+		+	+	+	+	+
Total	1.0		1.2		1.1	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1

+ Less than 0.01 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: These numbers are based on U.S. production data in accordance with Tier 1 guidelines, which does not take into account imports, exports and stockpiles (i.e., apparent consumption).

Table 7-38: Emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* (Gg)

Gas	1990		2000		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CO ₂	1,033		1,227		1,079	879	1,012	992	1,090
N ₂ O	+		+		+	+	+	+	+

+ Less than 0.05 Gg

Note: These numbers are based on U.S. production data in accordance with Tier 1 guidelines, which does not take into account imports, exports and stockpiles (i.e., apparent consumption).

Methodology

Off-Site CO₂ Emissions

CO₂ emissions from domestic peat production were estimated using a Tier 1 methodology consistent with IPCC (2006). Off-site CO₂ emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* were calculated by apportioning the annual weight of peat produced in the United States (Table 7-39) into peat extracted from nutrient-rich deposits and peat extracted from nutrient-poor deposits using annual percentage by weight figures. These nutrient-rich and nutrient-poor production values were then multiplied by the appropriate default carbon fraction conversion factor taken from IPCC (2006) in order to obtain off-site emission estimates. For the lower 48 states, both annual percentages of peat type by weight and domestic peat production data were sourced from estimates and industry statistics provided in the *Minerals Yearbook* and *Mineral Commodity Summaries* from the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS 1991–2010). To develop these data, the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS; U.S. Bureau of Mines prior to 1997) obtained production and use information by surveying domestic peat producers. The USGS often receives a response to the survey from most of the smaller peat producers, but fewer of the larger ones. For example, of the four active operations producing 23,000 or more metric tons per year, two did not respond to the survey in 2007. As a result, the USGS estimates production from the non-respondent peat producers based on responses to previous surveys (responses from 2004 and 2005, in the case above) or other sources.

The Alaska estimates rely on reported peat production from Alaska's annual Mineral Industry Reports (Szumigala et al. 2010). Similar to the U.S. Geological Survey, Alaska's Mineral Industry Report methodology solicits voluntary reporting of peat production from producers. However, the report does not estimate production for the non-reporting producers, resulting in larger inter-annual variation in reported peat production from Alaska depending on the number of producers who report in a given year (Szumigala 2011). In addition, in both the lower 48 states and Alaska, large variations in peat production can also result from variations in precipitation and the subsequent

moisture conditions, since unusually wet years can hamper peat production (USGS 2010). The methodology estimates Alaska emissions separately from lower 48 emissions because the state conducts its own mineral survey and reports peat production by volume, rather than by weight (Table 7-40). However, volume production data was used to calculate off-site CO₂ emissions from Alaska applying the same methodology but with volume-specific carbon fraction conversion factors from IPCC (2006).¹⁹³

The *apparent consumption* of peat, which includes production plus imports minus exports plus the decrease in stockpiles, in the United States is over two-and-a-half times the amount of domestic peat production. Therefore, off-site CO₂ emissions from the use of all horticultural peat within the United States are not accounted for using the Tier 1 approach. The United States has increasingly imported peat from Canada for horticultural purposes; from 2005 to 2008, imports of sphagnum moss (nutrient-poor) peat from Canada represented 97 percent of total U.S. peat imports (USGS 2010). Most peat produced in the United States is reed-sedge peat, generally from southern states, which is classified as nutrient rich by IPCC (2006). Higher-tier calculations of CO₂ emissions from apparent consumption would involve consideration of the percentages of peat types stockpiled (nutrient rich versus nutrient poor) as well as the percentages of peat types imported and exported.

Table 7-39: Peat Production of Lower 48 States (in thousands of Metric Tons)

Type of Deposit	1990		2000		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Nutrient-Rich	595.1		728.6		657.6	529.0	581.0	559.7	554.2
Nutrient-Poor	55.4		63.4		27.4	22.0	54.0	55.4	54.8
Total Production	692.0		792.0		685.0	551.0	635.0	615.0	609.0

Sources: *Minerals Yearbook: Peat* (1990–2008 Reports), *Mineral Commodity Summaries: Peat* (1996–2009 Reports), and Apodaca (2010). United States Geological Survey.

Table 7-40: Peat Production of Alaska (in thousands of Cubic Meters)

	1990		2000		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total Production	49.7		27.2		47.8	50.8	52.3	64.1	183.9

Sources: *Alaska's Mineral Industry* (1992–2009) Reports. Division of Geological & Geophysical Surveys, Alaska Department of Natural Resources.

On-site CO₂ Emissions

IPCC (2006) suggests basing the calculation of on-site emissions estimates on the area of peatlands managed for peat extraction differentiated by the nutrient type of the deposit (rich versus poor). Information on the area of land managed for peat extraction is currently not available for the United States, but in accordance with IPCC (2006), an average production rate for the industry was applied to derive an area estimate. In a mature industrialized peat industry, such as exists in the United States and Canada, the vacuum method¹⁹⁴ can extract up to 100 metric ton per hectare per year (Cleary et al. 2005 as cited in IPCC 2006). The area of land managed for peat extraction in the United States was estimated using nutrient-rich and nutrient-poor production data and the assumption that 100 metric tons of peat are extracted from a single hectare in a single year. The annual land area estimates were then multiplied by the appropriate nutrient-rich or nutrient-poor IPCC (2006) default emission factor in order to calculate on-site CO₂ emission estimates. Production data are not available by weight for Alaska. In order to calculate on-site emissions resulting from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* in Alaska, the production data by volume were converted to weight using annual average bulk peat density values, and then converted to land area estimates using the same assumption that a single hectare yields 100 metric tons. The IPCC (2006) on-site emissions equation also includes a term which accounts for emissions resulting from the change in carbon stocks that occurs during the clearing of vegetation prior to peat extraction. Area data on land undergoing conversion to peatlands for peat extraction is also unavailable for the United States. However, USGS records show that the number of active operations in the United

¹⁹³ Peat produced from Alaska was assumed to be nutrient poor; as is the case in Canada, “where deposits of high-quality [but nutrient poor] sphagnum moss are extensive” (USGS 2008).

¹⁹⁴ The vacuum method is one type of extraction that annually “mills” or breaks up the surface of the peat into particles, which then dry during the summer months. The air-dried peat particles are then collected by vacuum harvesters and transported from the area to stockpiles (IPCC 2006).

States has been declining since 1990; therefore it seems reasonable to assume that no new areas are being cleared of vegetation for managed peat extraction. Other changes in carbon stocks in living biomass on managed peatlands are also assumed to be zero under the Tier 1 methodology (IPCC 2006).

On-site N₂O Emissions

IPCC (2006) suggests basing the calculation of on-site N₂O emissions estimates on the area of nutrient-rich peatlands managed for peat extraction. These area data are not available directly for the United States, but the on-site CO₂ emissions methodology above details the calculation of area data from production data. In order to estimate N₂O emissions, the area of nutrient rich *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* was multiplied by the appropriate default emission factor taken from IPCC (2006).

Uncertainty

The uncertainty associated with peat production data was estimated to be ± 25 percent (Apodaca 2008) and assumed to be normally distributed. The uncertainty associated with peat production data stems from the fact that the USGS receives data from the smaller peat producers but estimates production from some larger peat distributors. This same uncertainty and distribution was assumed for the peat type production percentages. The uncertainty associated with the Alaskan reported production data was assumed to be the same as the lower 48 states, or ± 25 percent with a normal distribution. It should be noted that the Alaskan Department of Natural Resources estimate that around half of producers do not respond to their survey with peat production data; therefore, the production numbers reported are likely to underestimate Alaska peat production (Szumigala 2008). The uncertainty associated with the average bulk density values was estimated to be ± 25 percent with a normal distribution (Apodaca 2008). IPCC (2006) gives uncertainty values for the emissions factors for the area of peat deposits managed for peat extraction based on the range of underlying data used to determine the emissions factors. The uncertainty associated with the emission factors was assumed to be triangularly distributed. The uncertainty values surrounding the carbon fractions were based on IPCC (2006) and the uncertainty was assumed to be uniformly distributed. Based on these values and distributions, a Monte Carlo (Tier 2) uncertainty analysis was applied to estimate the uncertainty of CO₂ and N₂O emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands*. The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 7-41. CO₂ emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* in 2009 were estimated to be between 0.8 and 1.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 30 percent below to 34 percent above the 2009 emission estimate of 1.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. N₂O emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* in 2009 were estimated to be between 0.001 and 0.007 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 74 percent below to 41 percent above the 2009 emission estimate of 0.005 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 7-41: Tier-2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands*

Source	Gas	2009 Emissions Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emissions Estimate ^a			
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
<i>Peatlands Remaining Peatlands</i>	CO ₂	1.1	0.8	1.5	-30%	34%
	N ₂ O	+	+	+	-74%	41%

+ Does not exceed 0.01 Tg CO₂ Eq. or 0.5 Gg.

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

QA/QC and Verification

A QA/QC analysis was performed for data gathering and input, documentation, and calculation. The QA/QC analysis did not reveal any inaccuracies or incorrect input values.

Recalculations Discussion

The current Inventory represents the third Inventory report in which emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* are included. A revised 2008 estimate of peat production by volume for Alaska was reported in 2010 (Szumigala et

al. 2010). Updating the 2008 production data with this revised estimate led to a 5 percent increase over the previous 2008 emission estimate.

Planned Improvements

In order to further improve estimates of CO₂ and N₂O emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands*, future efforts will consider options for obtaining better data on the quantity of peat harvested per hectare and the total area undergoing peat extraction.

7.9. Settlements Remaining Settlements

Changes in Carbon Stocks in Urban Trees (IPCC Source Category 5E1)

Urban forests constitute a significant portion of the total U.S. tree canopy cover (Dwyer et al. 2000). Urban areas (cities, towns, and villages) are estimated to cover over 4 percent of the United States (Nowak et al. 2005). With an average tree canopy cover of 27 percent, urban areas account for approximately 3 percent of total tree cover in the continental United States (Nowak et al. 2001). Trees in urban areas of the United States were estimated to account for an average annual net sequestration of 76.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (20.9 Tg C) over the period from 1990 through 2009. Net C flux from urban trees in 2009 was estimated to be -95.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (-26.2 Tg C). Annual estimates of CO₂ flux (Table 7-42) were developed based on periodic (1990 and 2000) U.S. Census data on urbanized area. This estimated urban area is smaller than the area categorized as *Settlements* in the Representation of the U.S. Land Base developed for this report, by an average of 21 percent over the 1990 through 2009 time series—i.e., the Census urban area is a subset of the *Settlements* area. Census area data are preferentially used to develop C flux estimates for this source category since these data are more applicable for use with the available peer-reviewed data on urban tree canopy cover and urban tree C sequestration. Annual sequestration increased by 68 percent between 1990 and 2009 due to increases in urban land area. Data on C storage and urban tree coverage were collected since the early 1990s and have been applied to the entire time series in this report.

Net C flux from urban trees is proportionately greater on an area basis than that of forests. This trend is primarily the result of different net growth rates in urban areas versus forests—urban trees often grow faster than forest trees because of the relatively open structure of the urban forest (Nowak and Crane 2002). However, areas in each case are accounted for differently. Because urban areas contain less tree coverage than forest areas, the C storage per hectare of land is in fact smaller for urban areas. However, urban tree reporting occurs on a basis of C sequestered per unit area of tree cover, rather than C sequestered per total land area. Areas covered by urban trees, therefore, appear to have a greater C density than do forested areas (Nowak and Crane 2002).

Table 7-42: Net C Flux from Urban Trees (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Tg C)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Tg C
1990	(57.1)	(15.6)
2000	(77.5)	(21.1)
2005	(87.8)	(23.9)
2006	(89.8)	(24.5)
2007	(91.9)	(25.1)
2008	(93.9)	(25.6)
2009	(95.9)	(26.2)

Note: Parentheses indicate net sequestration.

Methodology

Methods for quantifying urban tree biomass, C sequestration, and C emissions from tree mortality and decomposition were taken directly from Nowak and Crane (2002) and Nowak (1994). In general, the methodology used by Nowak and Crane (2002) to estimate net C sequestration in urban trees followed three steps. First, field data from 14 cities were used to generate allometric estimates of biomass from measured tree dimensions. Second, estimates of tree growth and biomass increment were generated from published literature and adjusted for tree condition and land-use class to generate estimates of gross C sequestration in urban trees. Third, estimates of C emissions due to mortality and decomposition were subtracted from gross C sequestration values to derive estimates

of net C sequestration. Sequestration estimates for these cities, in units of carbon sequestered per unit area of tree cover, were then used to estimate urban forest C sequestration in the U.S. by using urban area estimates from U.S. Census data and urban tree cover estimates from remote sensing data, an approach consistent with Nowak and Crane (2002).

This approach is also consistent with the default IPCC methodology in IPCC (2006), although sufficient data are not yet available to separately determine interannual gains and losses in C stocks in the living biomass of urban trees. Annual changes in net C flux from urban trees are based solely on changes in total urban area in the United States.

In order to generate the allometric relationships between tree dimensions and tree biomass, Nowak and Crane (2002) and Nowak (1994, 2007c, 2009) collected field measurements in a number of U.S. cities between 1989 and 2002. For a sample of trees in each of the cities in Table 7-43, data including tree measurements of stem diameter, tree height, crown height and crown width, and information on location, species, and canopy condition were collected. The data for each tree were converted into C storage by applying allometric equations to estimate aboveground biomass, a root-to-shoot ratio to convert aboveground biomass estimates to whole tree biomass, moisture content, a C content of 50 percent (dry weight basis), and an adjustment factor of 0.8 to account for urban trees having less aboveground biomass for a given stem diameter than predicted by allometric equations based on forest trees (Nowak 1994). C storage estimates for deciduous trees include only carbon stored in wood. These calculations were then used to develop an allometric equation relating tree dimensions to C storage for each species of tree, encompassing a range of diameters.

Tree growth was estimated using annual height growth and diameter growth rates for specific land uses and diameter classes. Growth calculations were adjusted by a factor to account for tree condition (fair to excellent, poor, critical, dying, or dead). For each tree, the difference in C storage estimates between year 1 and year ($x + 1$) represents the gross amount of C sequestered. These annual gross C sequestration rates for each species (or genus), diameter class, and land-use condition (e.g., parks, transportation, vacant, golf courses) were then scaled up to city estimates using tree population information. The area of assessment for each city was defined by its political boundaries; parks and other forested urban areas were thus included in sequestration estimates (Nowak 2011).

Most of the field data used to develop the methodology of Nowak et al. were analyzed using the U.S. Forest Service's Urban Forest Effects (UFORE) model. UFORE is a computer model that uses standardized field data from random plots in each city and local air pollution and meteorological data to quantify urban forest structure, values of the urban forest, and environmental effects, including total C stored and annual C sequestration. UFORE was used with field data from a stratified random sample of plots in each city to quantify the characteristics of the urban forest. (Nowak et al. 2007a).

Gross C emissions result from tree death and removals. Estimates of gross C emissions from urban trees were derived by applying estimates of annual mortality and condition, and assumptions about whether dead trees were removed from the site to the total C stock estimate for each city. Estimates of annual mortality rates by diameter class and condition class were derived from a study of street-tree mortality (Nowak 1986). Different decomposition rates were applied to dead trees left standing compared with those removed from the site. For removed trees, different rates were applied to the removed/aboveground biomass in contrast to the belowground biomass. The estimated annual gross C emission rates for each species (or genus), diameter class, and condition class were then scaled up to city estimates using tree population information.

The field data for 13 of the 14 cities are described in Nowak and Crane (2002), Nowak et al. (2007a), and references cited therein. Data for the remaining city, Chicago, were taken from unpublished results (Nowak 2009). The allometric equations applied to the field data for each tree were taken from the scientific literature (see Nowak 1994, Nowak et al. 2002), but if no allometric equation could be found for the particular species, the average result for the genus was used. The adjustment (0.8) to account for less live tree biomass in urban trees was based on information in Nowak (1994). A root-to-shoot ratio of 0.26 was taken from Cairns et al. (1997), and species- or genus-specific moisture contents were taken from various literature sources (see Nowak 1994). Tree growth rates were taken from existing literature. Average diameter growth was based on the following sources: estimates for trees in forest stands came from Smith and Shifley (1984); estimates for trees on land uses with a park-like structure came from deVries (1987); and estimates for more open-grown trees came from Nowak (1994). Formulas from Fleming (1988) formed the basis for average height growth calculations. As described above, growth rates were adjusted to account for tree condition. Growth factors for Atlanta, Boston, Freehold, Jersey City, Moorestown, New York, Philadelphia, and Woodbridge were adjusted based on the typical growth conditions of different land-use categories (e.g., forest stands, park-like stands). Growth factors for the more recent studies in Baltimore, Chicago, Minneapolis, San

Francisco, Syracuse, and Washington were adjusted using an updated methodology based on the condition of each individual tree, which is determined using tree competition factors (depending on whether it is open grown or suppressed) (Nowak 2007b). Assumptions for which dead trees would be removed versus left standing were developed specific to each land use and were based on expert judgment of the authors. Decomposition rates were based on literature estimates (Nowak and Crane 2002).

Estimates of gross and net sequestration rates for each of the 14 cities (Table 7-43) were compiled in units of C sequestration per unit area of tree canopy cover. These rates were used in conjunction with estimates of national urban area and urban tree cover data to calculate national annual net C sequestration by urban trees for the United States. This method was described in Nowak and Crane (2002) and has been modified to incorporate U.S. Census data.

Specifically, urban area estimates were based on 1990 and 2000 U.S. Census data. The 1990 U.S. Census defined urban land as “urbanized areas,” which included land with a population density greater than 1,000 people per square mile, and adjacent “urban places,” which had predefined political boundaries and a population total greater than 2,500. In 2000, the U.S. Census replaced the “urban places” category with a new category of urban land called an “urban cluster,” which included areas with more than 500 people per square mile. Urban land area increased by approximately 36 percent from 1990 to 2000; Nowak et al. (2005) estimate that the changes in the definition of urban land are responsible for approximately 20 percent of the total reported increase in urban land area from 1990 to 2000. Under both 1990 and 2000 definitions, the urban category encompasses most cities, towns, and villages (i.e., it includes both urban and suburban areas).

Settlements area, as assessed in the Representation of the U.S. Land Base developed for this report, encompassed all developed parcels greater than 0.1 hectares in size, including rural transportation corridors, and as previously mentioned represent a larger area than the Census-derived urban area estimates. However, the Census-derived urban area estimates were deemed to be more suitable for estimating national urban tree cover given the data available in the peer-reviewed literature. Specifically, tree canopy cover of U.S. urban areas was estimated by Nowak et al. (2001) to be 27 percent, assessed across Census-delineated urbanized areas, urban places, and places containing urbanized area. This canopy cover percentage is multiplied by the urban area estimated for each year to produce an estimate of national urban tree cover area.

Net annual C sequestration estimates were derived for the 14 cities by subtracting the gross annual emission estimates from the gross annual sequestration estimates. The gross and net annual C sequestration values for each city were divided by each city’s area of tree cover to determine the average annual sequestration rates per unit of tree area for each city. The median value for gross sequestration per unit area of tree cover (0.29 kg C/m²-yr) was then multiplied by the estimate of national urban tree cover area to estimate national annual gross sequestration, per the methods of Nowak and Crane (2002). To estimate national annual net sequestration, the estimate of national annual gross sequestration was multiplied by the average of the ratios of net to gross sequestration (0.72) for those cities that had both estimates. The urban tree cover estimates for each of the 14 cities and the United States were obtained from Dwyer et al. (2000), Nowak et al. (2002), Nowak (2007a), and Nowak (2009). The urban area estimates were taken from Nowak et al. (2005).

Table 7-43: C Stocks (Metric Tons C), Annual C Sequestration (Metric Tons C/yr), Tree Cover (Percent), and Annual C Sequestration per Area of Tree Cover (kg C/m²-yr) for 14 U.S. Cities

City	Carbon Stocks	Gross Annual Sequestration	Net Annual Sequestration	Tree Cover	Gross Annual Sequestration per Area of Tree Cover	Net Annual Sequestration per Area of Tree Cover	Net:Gross Annual Sequestration Ratio
Atlanta, GA	1,219,256	42,093	32,169	36.7%	0.34	0.26	0.76
Baltimore, MD	541,589	14,696	9,261	21.0%	0.35	0.22	0.63
Boston, MA	289,392	9,525	6,966	22.3%	0.30	0.22	0.73
Chicago, IL	649,000	22,800	16,100	17.2%	0.22	0.16	0.71
Freehold, NJ	18,144	494	318	34.4%	0.28	0.18	0.64
Jersey City, NJ	19,051	807	577	11.5%	0.18	0.13	0.71
Minneapolis, MN	226,796	8,074	4,265	26.4%	0.20	0.11	0.53
Moorestown, NJ	106,141	3,411	2,577	28.0%	0.32	0.24	0.76
New York, NY	1,224,699	38,374	20,786	20.9%	0.23	0.12	0.54
Philadelphia, PA	480,808	14,606	10,530	15.7%	0.27	0.20	0.72

San Francisco, CA	175,994	4,627	4,152	11.9%	0.33	0.29	0.90
Syracuse, NY	156,943	4,917	4,270	23.1%	0.33	0.29	0.87
Washington, DC	477,179	14,696	11,661	28.6%	0.32	0.26	0.79
Woodbridge, NJ	145,150	5,044	3,663	29.5%	0.28	0.21	0.73
Median: 0.29						Mean: 0.72	

NA = not analyzed.

Sources: Nowak and Crane (2002), Nowak (2007a,c), and Nowak (2009).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainty associated with changes in C stocks in urban trees includes the uncertainty associated with urban area, percent urban tree coverage, and estimates of gross and net C sequestration for each of the 14 U.S. cities. A 10 percent uncertainty was associated with urban area estimates while a 5 percent uncertainty was associated with percent urban tree coverage. Both of these uncertainty estimates were based on expert judgment. Uncertainty associated with estimates of gross and net C sequestration for each of the 14 U.S. cities was based on standard error estimates for each of the city-level sequestration estimates reported by Nowak (2007c) and Nowak (2009). These estimates are based on field data collected in each of the 14 U.S. cities, and uncertainty in these estimates increases as they are scaled up to the national level.

Additional uncertainty is associated with the biomass equations, conversion factors, and decomposition assumptions used to calculate C sequestration and emission estimates (Nowak et al. 2002). These results also exclude changes in soil C stocks, and there may be some overlap between the urban tree C estimates and the forest tree C estimates. Due to data limitations, urban soil flux is not quantified as part of this analysis, while reconciliation of urban tree and forest tree estimates will be addressed through the land-representation effort described in the Planned Improvements section of this chapter.

A Monte Carlo (Tier 2) uncertainty analysis was applied to estimate the overall uncertainty of the sequestration estimate. The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 7-44. The net C flux from changes in C stocks in urban trees in 2009 was estimated to be between -116.8 and -77.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 22 percent below and 19 percent above the 2009 flux estimate of -95.9 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 7-44: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for Net C Flux from Changes in C Stocks in Urban Trees (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Flux Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Flux Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.) (%)			
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Changes in C Stocks in Urban Trees	CO ₂	(95.9)	(116.8)	(77.7)	-22%	+19%

Note: Parentheses indicate negative values or net sequestration.

Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

The net C flux resulting from urban trees was predominately calculated using estimates of gross and net C sequestration estimates for urban trees and urban tree coverage area published in the literature. The validity of these data for their use in this section of the inventory was evaluated through correspondence established with an author of the papers. Through this correspondence, the methods used to collect the urban tree sequestration and area data were further clarified and the use of these data in the inventory was reviewed and validated (Nowak 2002a, 2007b, 2011).

Planned Improvements

A consistent representation of the managed land base in the United States is being developed. A component of this effort, which is discussed at the beginning of the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter, will involve reconciling the overlap between urban forest and non-urban forest greenhouse gas inventories. It is highly likely

that urban forest inventories are including areas also defined as forest land under the Forest Inventory and Analysis (FIA) program of the USDA Forest Service, resulting in “double-counting” of these land areas in estimates of C stocks and fluxes for the inventory. The Forest Service is currently conducting research that will define urban area boundaries and make it possible to distinguish forest from forested urban areas. Once those data become available, they will be incorporated into estimates of net C flux resulting from urban trees.

Urban forest data for additional cities are expected in the near future, as are updated data for cities currently included in the estimates. The use of these data will further refine the estimated median sequestration value. It may also be possible to report C losses and gains separately in the future. It is currently not possible, since existing studies estimate rather than measure natality or mortality; net sequestration estimates are based on assumptions about whether dead trees are being removed, burned, or chipped. There is an effort underway to assess urban tree loss to mortality and removals, which would allow for direct calculation of C losses and gains from observed rather than estimated natality and mortality of trees.

Data from the 2010 U.S. Census is expected to provide updated U.S. urbanized area, which would allow for refinement of the urban area time series. Revisions to urban area time series will result in revisions to prior years’ C flux estimates.

A revised average tree canopy cover percentage for U.S. urban areas is anticipated to become available in the peer-reviewed literature in the near future, which would allow for updated C flux estimates. Furthermore, urban tree cover data specific to each state is also expected in the near future. It may be possible to develop a set of state-specific sequestration rates for more granular and regionally precise C flux estimates by coupling these data with adjusted growth rates for each U.S. state. Future research may also enable more complete coverage of changes in the C stock in urban trees for all *Settlements* land. To provide estimates for all *Settlements*, research would need to establish the extent of overlap between *Settlements* and Census-defined urban areas, and would have to characterize sequestration on non-urban *Settlements* land.

Direct N₂O Fluxes from Settlement Soils (IPCC Source Category 5E1)

Of the synthetic N fertilizers applied to soils in the United States, approximately 2.5 percent are currently applied to lawns, golf courses, and other landscaping occurring within settlement areas. Application rates are lower than those occurring on cropped soils, and, therefore, account for a smaller proportion of total U.S. soil N₂O emissions per unit area. In addition to synthetic N fertilizers, a portion of surface applied sewage sludge is applied to settlement areas. In 2009, N₂O emissions from this source were 1.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (4.9 Gg). There was an overall increase of 55 percent over the period from 1990 through 2009 due to a general increase in the application of synthetic N fertilizers to an expanding settlement area. Interannual variability in these emissions is directly attributable to interannual variability in total synthetic fertilizer consumption and sewage sludge applications in the United States. Emissions from this source are summarized in Table 7-45.

Table 7-45: Direct N₂O Fluxes from Soils in *Settlements Remaining Settlements* (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg N₂O)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	1.0	3.2
2000	1.1	3.7
2005	1.5	4.7
2006	1.5	4.8
2007	1.6	5.1
2008	1.5	4.9
2009	1.5	4.9

Note: These estimates include direct N₂O emissions from N fertilizer additions only. Indirect N₂O emissions from fertilizer additions are reported in the Agriculture chapter. These estimates include emissions from both *Settlements Remaining Settlements* and from *Land Converted to Settlements*.

Methodology

For soils within *Settlements Remaining Settlements*, the IPCC Tier 1 approach was used to estimate soil N₂O emissions from synthetic N fertilizer and sewage sludge additions. Estimates of direct N₂O emissions from soils in settlements were based on the amount of N in synthetic commercial fertilizers applied to settlement soils, and the

amount of N in sewage sludge applied to non-agricultural land and surface disposal of sewage sludge (see Annex 3.11 for a detailed discussion of the methodology for estimating sewage sludge application).

Nitrogen applications to settlement soils are estimated using data compiled by the USGS (Ruddy et al. 2006). The USGS estimated on-farm and non-farm fertilizer use is based on sales records at the county level from 1982 through 2001 (Ruddy et al. 2006). Non-farm N fertilizer was assumed to be applied to settlements and forest lands; values for 2002 through 2008 were based on 2001 values adjusted for annual total N fertilizer sales in the United States because there is no new activity data on application after 2001. Settlement application was calculated by subtracting forest application from total non-farm fertilizer use. Sewage sludge applications were derived from national data on sewage sludge generation, disposition, and N content (see Annex 3.11 for further detail). The total amount of N resulting from these sources was multiplied by the IPCC default emission factor for applied N (1 percent) to estimate direct N₂O emissions (IPCC 2006). The volatilized and leached/runoff N fractions for settlements, calculated with the IPCC default volatilization factors (10 or 20 percent, respectively, for synthetic or organic N fertilizers) and leaching/runoff factor for wet areas (30 percent), were included with indirect emissions, as reported in the N₂O Emissions from Agricultural Soil Management source category of the Agriculture chapter (consistent with reporting guidance that all indirect emissions are included in the Agricultural Soil Management source category).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The amount of N₂O emitted from settlements depends not only on N inputs and fertilized area, but also on a large number of variables, including organic C availability, oxygen gas partial pressure, soil moisture content, pH,

Planned Improvements

A minor improvement is planned to update the uncertainty analysis for direct emissions from settlements to be consistent with the most recent activity data for this source.

7.10. Land Converted to Settlements (Source Category 5E2)

Land-use change is constantly occurring, and land under a number of uses undergoes urbanization in the United States each year. However, data on the amount of land converted to settlements is currently lacking. Given the lack of available information relevant to this particular IPCC source category, it is not possible to separate CO₂ or N₂O fluxes on *Land Converted to Settlements* from fluxes on *Settlements Remaining Settlements* at this time.

7.11. Other (IPCC Source Category 5G)

Changes in Yard Trimming and Food Scrap Carbon Stocks in Landfills

In the United States, a significant change in C stocks results from the removal of yard trimmings (i.e., grass clippings, leaves, and branches) and food scraps from settlements to be disposed in landfills. Yard trimmings and food scraps account for a significant portion of the municipal waste stream, and a large fraction of the collected yard trimmings and food scraps are discarded in landfills. C contained in landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps can be stored for very long periods.

Carbon storage estimates are associated with particular land uses. For example, harvested wood products are accounted for under *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* because these wood products are a component of the forest ecosystem. The wood products serve as reservoirs to which C resulting from photosynthesis in trees is transferred, but the removals in this case occur in the forest. C stock changes in yard trimmings and food scraps are associated with settlements, but removals in this case do not occur within settlements. To address this complexity, yard trimming and food scrap C storage is therefore reported under the “Other” source category.

Both the amount of yard trimmings collected annually and the fraction that is landfilled have declined over the last decade. In 1990, over 53 million metric tons (wet weight) of yard trimmings and food scraps were generated (i.e., put at the curb for collection to be taken to disposal sites or to composting facilities) (EPA 2011; Schneider 2007, 2008). Since then, programs banning or discouraging yard trimmings disposal have led to an increase in backyard composting and the use of mulching mowers, and a consequent 5 percent decrease in the tonnage generated (i.e., collected for composting or disposal). At the same time, an increase in the number of municipal composting facilities has reduced the proportion of collected yard trimmings that are discarded in landfills—from 72 percent in 1990 to 33 percent in 2009. The net effect of the reduction in generation and the increase in composting is a 57 percent decrease in the quantity of yard trimmings disposed in landfills since 1990.

Food scraps generation has grown by 44 percent since 1990, and though the proportion of food scraps discarded in landfills has decreased slightly from 82 percent in 1990 to 80 percent in 2009, the tonnage disposed in landfills has increased considerably (by 40 percent). Overall, the decrease in the yard trimmings landfill disposal rate has more than compensated for the increase in food scrap disposal in landfills, and the net result is a decrease in annual landfill carbon storage from 24.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 1990 to 12.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009 (Table 7-47 and Table 7-48).

Table 7-47: Net Changes in Yard Trimming and Food Scrap Stocks in Landfills (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Carbon Pool	1990		2000		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Yard Trimmings	(21.0)		(8.8)		(7.3)	(7.5)	(7.0)	(7.3)	(8.5)
Grass	(1.8)		(0.7)		(0.6)	(0.6)	(0.6)	(0.7)	(0.8)
Leaves	(9.0)		(3.9)		(3.3)	(3.4)	(3.2)	(3.4)	(3.9)
Branches	(10.2)		(4.2)		(3.3)	(3.4)	(3.2)	(3.3)	(3.8)
Food Scraps	(3.2)		(4.4)		(4.3)	(3.5)	(3.9)	(3.9)	(4.1)
Total Net Flux	(24.2)		(13.2)		(11.5)	(11.0)	(10.9)	(11.2)	(12.6)

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 7-48: Net Changes in Yard Trimming and Food Scrap Stocks in Landfills (Tg C)

Carbon Pool	1990		2000		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Yard Trimmings	(5.7)		(2.4)		(2.0)	(2.0)	(1.9)	(2.0)	(2.3)
Grass	(0.5)		(0.2)		(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.2)
Leaves	(2.5)		(1.1)		(0.9)	(0.9)	(0.9)	(0.9)	(1.1)
Branches	(2.8)		(1.2)		(0.9)	(0.9)	(0.9)	(0.9)	(1.0)
Food Scraps	(0.9)		(1.2)		(1.2)	(1.0)	(1.1)	(1.1)	(1.1)
Total Net Flux	(6.6)		(3.6)		(3.1)	(3.0)	(3.0)	(3.1)	(3.4)

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

When wastes of biogenic origin (such as yard trimmings and food scraps) are landfilled and do not completely decompose, the C that remains is effectively removed from the global C cycle. Empirical evidence indicates that yard trimmings and food scraps do not completely decompose in landfills (Barlaz 1998, 2005, 2008; De la Cruz and Barlaz 2010), and thus the stock of carbon in landfills can increase, with the net effect being a net atmospheric removal of carbon. Estimates of net C flux resulting from landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps were developed by estimating the change in landfilled C stocks between inventory years, based on methodologies presented for the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry sector in IPCC (2003). C stock estimates were calculated by determining the mass of landfilled C resulting from yard trimmings or food scraps discarded in a given year; adding the accumulated landfilled C from previous years; and subtracting the mass of C landfilled in previous years that decomposed.

To determine the total landfilled C stocks for a given year, the following were estimated: (1) the composition of the yard trimmings; (2) the mass of yard trimmings and food scraps discarded in landfills; (3) the C storage factor of the landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps; and (4) the rate of decomposition of the degradable C. The composition of yard trimmings was assumed to be 30 percent grass clippings, 40 percent leaves, and 30 percent branches on a wet weight basis (Oshins and Block 2000). The yard trimmings were subdivided, because each component has its own unique adjusted C storage factor and rate of decomposition. The mass of yard trimmings and food scraps disposed of in landfills was estimated by multiplying the quantity of yard trimmings and food scraps discarded by the proportion of discards managed in landfills. Data on discards (i.e., the amount generated minus the amount diverted to centralized composting facilities) for both yard trimmings and food scraps were taken primarily from *Municipal Solid Waste Generation, Recycling, and Disposal in the United States: Facts and Figures for 2009* (EPA 2011), which provides data for 1960, 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2005 through 2009. To provide data for some of the missing years, detailed backup data were obtained from Schneider (2007, 2008). Remaining years in the time series for which data were not provided were estimated using linear interpolation. The EPA (2011) report does not subdivide discards of individual materials into volumes landfilled and combusted, although it provides an estimate of the proportion of overall waste stream discards managed in landfills¹⁹⁶ and combustors with energy recovery (i.e., ranging from 100 percent and 0 percent, respectively, in 1960 to 81 percent and 19 percent in 2000); it is assumed that the proportion of each individual material (food scraps, grass, leaves, branches) that is landfilled is the same as the proportion across the overall waste stream.

The amount of C disposed of in landfills each year, starting in 1960, was estimated by converting the discarded landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps from a wet weight to a dry weight basis, and then multiplying by the initial (i.e., pre-decomposition) C content (as a fraction of dry weight). The dry weight of landfilled material was calculated using dry weight to wet weight ratios (Tchobanoglous et al. 1993, cited by Barlaz 1998) and the initial C contents and the C storage factors were determined by Barlaz (1998, 2005, 2008) (Table 7-49).

The amount of C remaining in the landfill for each subsequent year was tracked based on a simple model of C fate. As demonstrated by Barlaz (1998, 2005, 2008), a portion of the initial C resists decomposition and is essentially persistent in the landfill environment. Barlaz (1998, 2005, 2008) conducted a series of experiments designed to

¹⁹⁶ EPA (2011) reports discards in two categories: “combustion with energy recovery” and “landfill, other disposal,” which includes combustion without energy recovery. For years in which there is data from previous EPA reports on combustion without energy recovery, EPA assumes these estimates are still applicable. For 2000 to present, EPA assumes that any combustion of MSW that occurs includes energy recovery, so all discards to “landfill, other disposal” are assumed to go to landfills.

measure biodegradation of yard trimmings, food scraps, and other materials, in conditions designed to promote decomposition (i.e., by providing ample moisture and nutrients). After measuring the initial C content, the materials were placed in sealed containers along with a “seed” containing methanogenic microbes from a landfill. Once decomposition was complete, the yard trimmings and food scraps were re-analyzed for C content; the C remaining in the solid sample can be expressed as a proportion of initial C (shown in the row labeled “CS” in Table 7-49).

The modeling approach applied to simulate U.S. landfill C flows builds on the findings of Barlaz (1998, 2005, 2008). The proportion of C stored is assumed to persist in landfills. The remaining portion is assumed to degrade, resulting in emissions of CH₄ and CO₂ (the CH₄ emissions resulting from decomposition of yard trimmings and food scraps are accounted for in the “Waste” chapter). The degradable portion of the C is assumed to decay according to first-order kinetics.

The first-order decay rates, k , for each component were derived from De la Cruz and Barlaz (2010). De la Cruz and Barlaz (2010) calculate first-order decay rates using laboratory data published in Eleazer et al. (1997), and a correction factor, f , is found so that the weighted average decay rate for all components is equal to the AP-42 default decay rate (0.04) for mixed MSW for regions that receive more than 25 inches of rain annually. Because AP-42 values were developed using landfill data from approximately 1990, 1990 waste composition for the United States from EPA’s *Characterization of Municipal Solid Waste in the United States: 1990 Update* was used to calculate f . This correction factor is then multiplied by the Eleazer et al. (1997) decay rates of each waste component to develop field-scale first-order decay rates.

De la Cruz and Barlaz (2010) also use other assumed initial decay rates for mixed MSW in place of the AP-42 default value based on different types of environments in which landfills in the United States are found, including dry conditions (less than 25 inches of rain annually, $k=0.02$) and bioreactor landfill conditions (moisture is controlled for rapid decomposition, $k=0.12$). The *Landfills* section of the Inventory (which estimates CH₄ emissions) estimates the overall MSW decay rate by partitioning the U.S. landfill population into three categories, based on annual precipitation ranges of (1) less than 20 inches of rain per year, (2) 20 to 40 inches of rain per year, and (3) greater than 40 inches of rain per year. These correspond to overall MSW decay rates of 0.020, 0.038, and 0.057 yr⁻¹, respectively.

De la Cruz and Barlaz (2010) calculate component-specific decay rates corresponding to the first value (0.020 yr⁻¹), but not for the other two overall MSW decay rates. To maintain consistency between landfill methodologies across the Inventory, the correction factors (f) were developed for decay rates of 0.038 and 0.057 yr⁻¹ through linear interpolation. A weighted national average component-specific decay rate was calculated by assuming that waste generation is proportional to population (the same assumption used in the landfill methane emission estimate), based on population data from the 2000 U.S. Census. The component-specific decay rates are shown in Table 7-49.

For each of the four materials (grass, leaves, branches, food scraps), the stock of C in landfills for any given year is calculated according to the following formula:

$$LFC_{i,t} = \sum_n^t W_{i,n} \times (1 - MC_i) \times ICC_i \times \{ [CS_i \times ICC_i] + [(1 - (CS_i \times ICC_i)) \times e^{-k(t-n)}] \}$$

where,

t	=	Year for which C stocks are being estimated (year),
i	=	Waste type for which C stocks are being estimated (grass, leaves, branches, food scraps),
$LFC_{i,t}$	=	Stock of C in landfills in year t , for waste i (metric tons),
$W_{i,n}$	=	Mass of waste i disposed in landfills in year n (metric tons, wet weight),
n	=	Year in which the waste was disposed (year, where $1960 < n < t$),
MC_i	=	Moisture content of waste i (percent of water),
CS_i	=	Proportion of initial C that is stored for waste i (percent),
ICC_i	=	Initial C content of waste i (percent),
e	=	Natural logarithm, and
k	=	First-order decay rate for waste i , (year ⁻¹).

For a given year t , the total stock of C in landfills ($TLFC_t$) is the sum of stocks across all four materials (grass, leaves, branches, food scraps). The annual flux of C in landfills (F_t) for year t is calculated as the change in stock compared to the preceding year:

$$F_t = TLFC_t - TLFC_{(t-1)}$$

Thus, the C placed in a landfill in year n is tracked for each year t through the end of the inventory period (2009). For example, disposal of food scraps in 1960 resulted in depositing about 1,135,000 metric tons of C. Of this amount, 16 percent (179,000 metric tons) is persistent; the remaining 84 percent (956,000 metric tons) is degradable. By 1965, more than half of the degradable portion (518,000 metric tons) decomposes, leaving a total of 617,000 metric tons (the persistent portion, plus the remainder of the degradable portion).

Continuing the example, by 2009, the total food scraps C originally disposed in 1960 had declined to 179,000 metric tons (i.e., virtually all degradable C had decomposed). By summing the C remaining from 1960 with the C remaining from food scraps disposed in subsequent years (1961 through 2009), the total landfill C from food scraps in 2009 was 35.9 million metric tons. This value is then added to the C stock from grass, leaves, and branches to calculate the total landfill C stock in 2009, yielding a value of 247.1 million metric tons (as shown in Table 7-50). In exactly the same way total net flux is calculated for forest C and harvested wood products, the total net flux of landfill C for yard trimmings and food scraps for a given year (Table 7-48) is the difference in the landfill C stock for that year and the stock in the preceding year. For example, the net change in 2009 shown in Table 7-48 (3.4 Tg C) is equal to the stock in 2009 (247.1 Tg C) minus the stock in 2008 (243.7 Tg C).

The C stocks calculated through this procedure are shown in Table 7-50.

Table 7-49: Moisture Content (%), C Storage Factor, Proportion of Initial C Sequestered (%), Initial C Content (%), and Decay Rate (year⁻¹) for Landfilled Yard Trimmings and Food Scraps in Landfills

Variable	Yard Trimmings			Food Scraps
	Grass	Leaves	Branches	
Moisture Content (% H ₂ O)	70	30	10	70
CS, proportion of initial C stored (%)	53	85	77	16
Initial C Content (%)	45	46	49	51
Decay Rate (year ⁻¹)	0.323	0.185	0.016	0.156

Table 7-50: C Stocks in Yard Trimmings and Food Scraps in Landfills (Tg C)

Carbon Pool	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Yard Trimmings	155.8	191.9	202.9	205.0	206.9	208.9	211.2
Branches	74.6	92.4	97.5	98.5	99.3	100.2	101.3
Leaves	66.7	82.4	87.3	88.3	89.1	90.1	91.1
Grass	14.5	17.2	18.1	18.2	18.4	18.6	18.8
Food Scraps	21.3	27.0	31.7	32.7	33.7	34.8	35.9
Total Carbon Stocks	177.2	218.9	234.6	237.6	240.6	243.7	247.1

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The uncertainty analysis for landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps includes an evaluation of the effects of uncertainty for the following data and factors: disposal in landfills per year (tons of C), initial C content, moisture content, decay rate, and proportion of C stored. The C storage landfill estimates are also a function of the composition of the yard trimmings (i.e., the proportions of grass, leaves and branches in the yard trimmings mixture). There are respective uncertainties associated with each of these factors.

A Monte Carlo (Tier 2) uncertainty analysis was applied to estimate the overall uncertainty of the sequestration estimate. The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 7-51. Total yard trimmings and food scraps CO₂ flux in 2009 was estimated to be between -21.2 and -6.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level (or 19 of 20 Monte Carlo stochastic simulations). This indicates a range of 68 percent below to 51 percent above the 2009 flux estimate of -12.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. More information on the uncertainty estimates for Yard Trimmings and Food Scraps in Landfills is contained within the Uncertainty Annex.

Table 7-51: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Flux from Yard Trimmings and Food Scraps in Landfills (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Flux Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Flux Estimate ^a (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)			
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Yard Trimmings and Food Scraps	CO ₂	(12.6)	(21.2)	(6.2)	-68%	+51%

^a Range of flux estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Note: Parentheses indicate negative values or net C sequestration.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A QA/QC analysis was performed for data gathering and input, documentation, and calculation and did not reveal any systematic inaccuracies or incorrect input values.

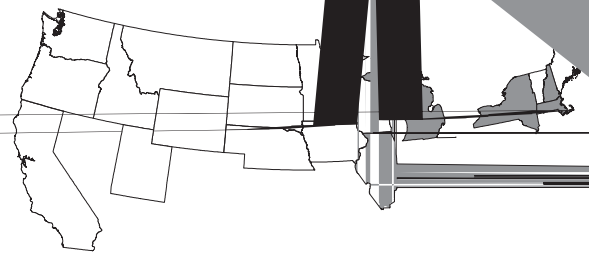
Recalculations Discussion

First-order decay rate constants were updated based on De la Cruz and Barlaz (2010), as described in the methodology section. Input data were updated for the years: 1990, 2000, 2005, and 2007 through 2009 based on the updated values reported in *Municipal Solid Waste Generation, Recycling, and Disposal in the United States: Facts and Figures for 2009* (EPA 2011). As a result, C storage estimates for those years were revised relative to the previous Inventory. While data inputs for intervening years in the timeseries were not revised, overall C storage in any given year is dependent on the previous year's storage (as shown in the second equation above), and so C storage estimates for those years were also revised. These revisions resulted in an annual average increase in C stored in landfills of 4.2 percent across the timeseries.

Planned Improvements

Future work is planned to evaluate the potential contribution of inorganic C, primarily in the form of carbonates, to landfill sequestration, as well as the consistency between the estimates of C storage described in this chapter and the estimates of landfill CH₄ emissions described in the Waste chapter.

Settlement



Other Lands

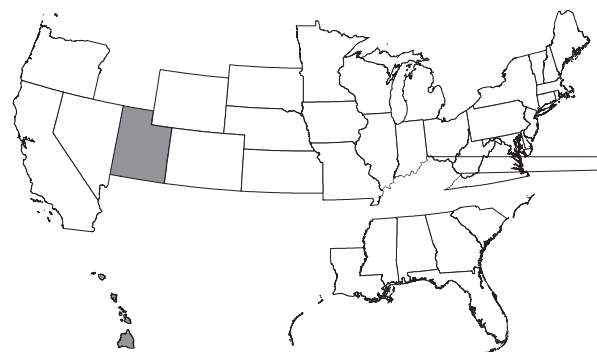
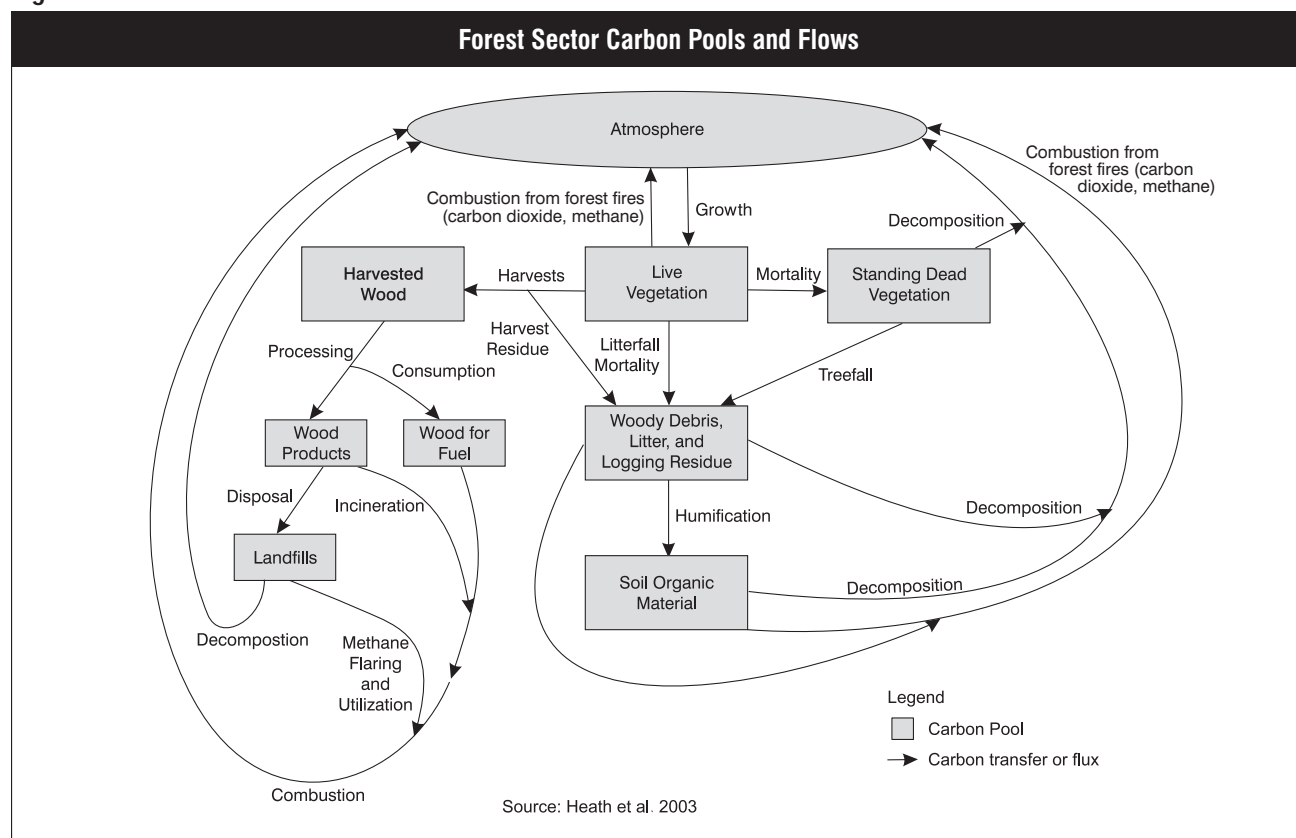


Figure 7-2



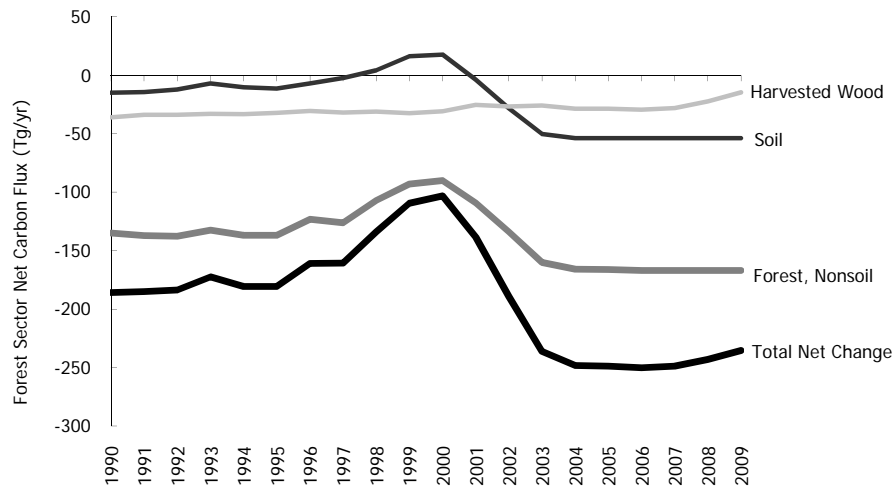


Figure 7-3: Estimates of Net Annual Changes in C Stocks for Major C Pools

Figure 7-4

Average C Density in the Forest Tree Pool in the Conterminous United States, 2009

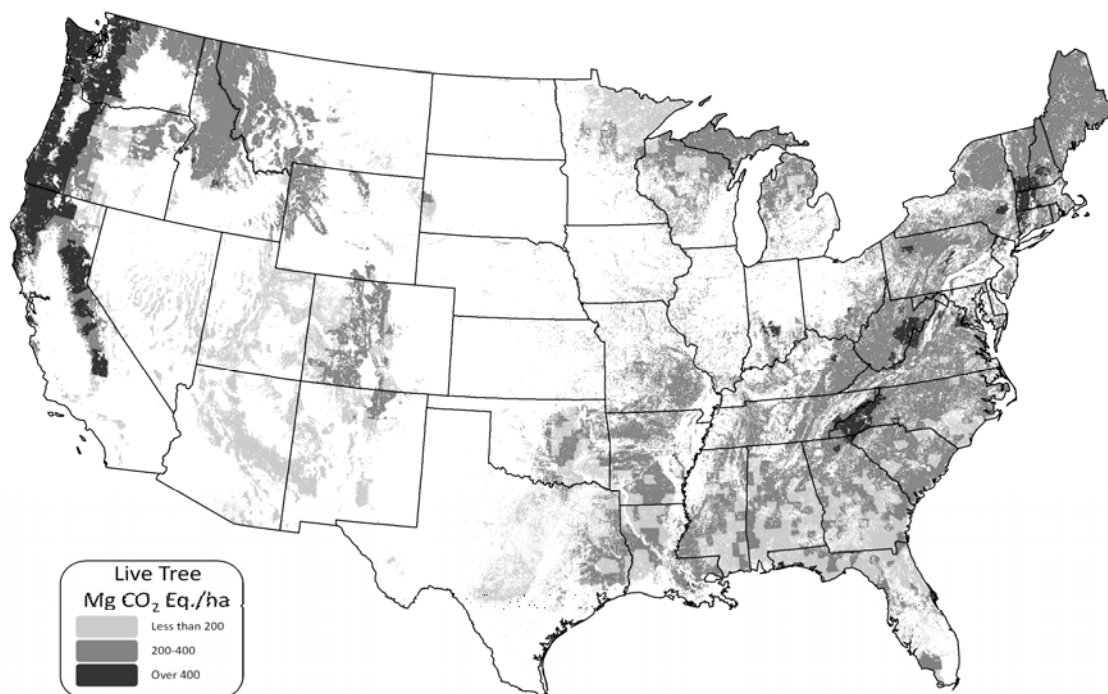
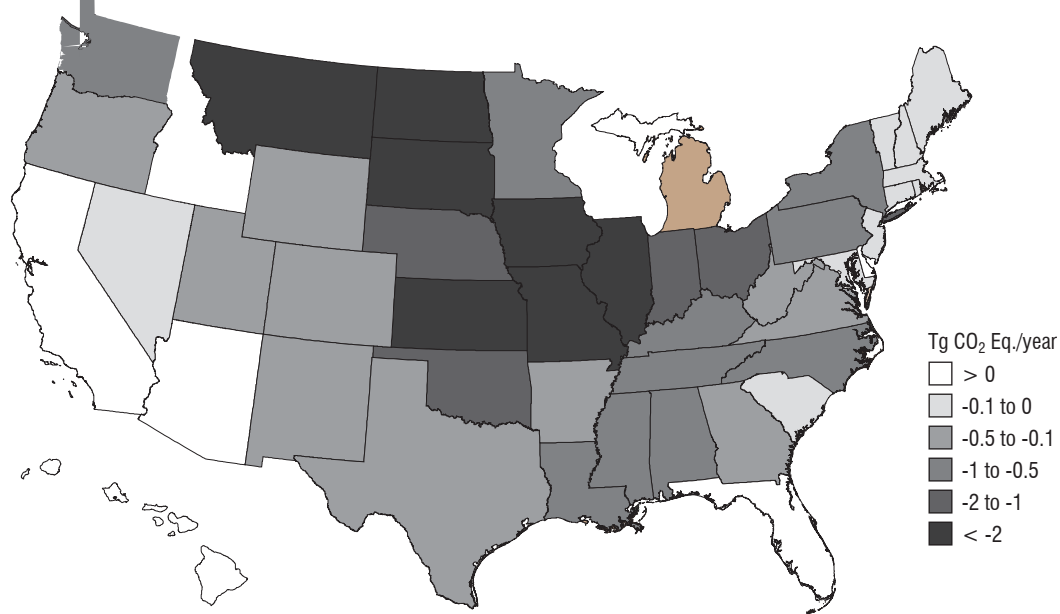


Figure 7-5

**Total Net Annual CO₂ Flux for Mineral Soils Under Agricultural Management within States,
2009, Cropland Remaining Cropland**



Note: Values greater than zero represent emissions, and values less than zero represent sequestration. Map accounts for fluxes associated with the Tier 2 and 3 Inventory computations. See Methodology for additional details.

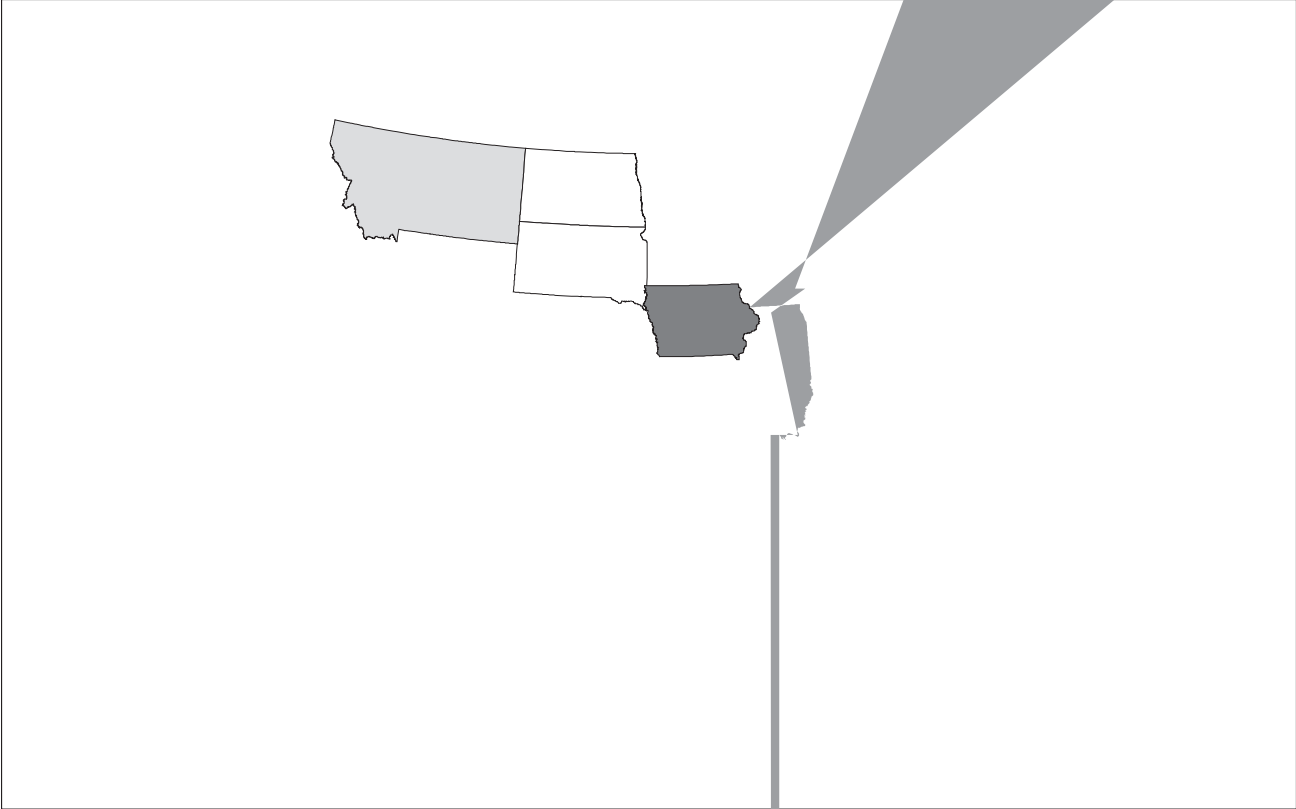
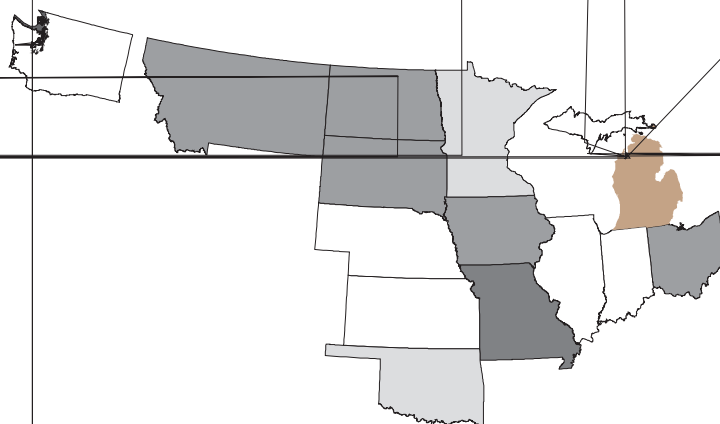
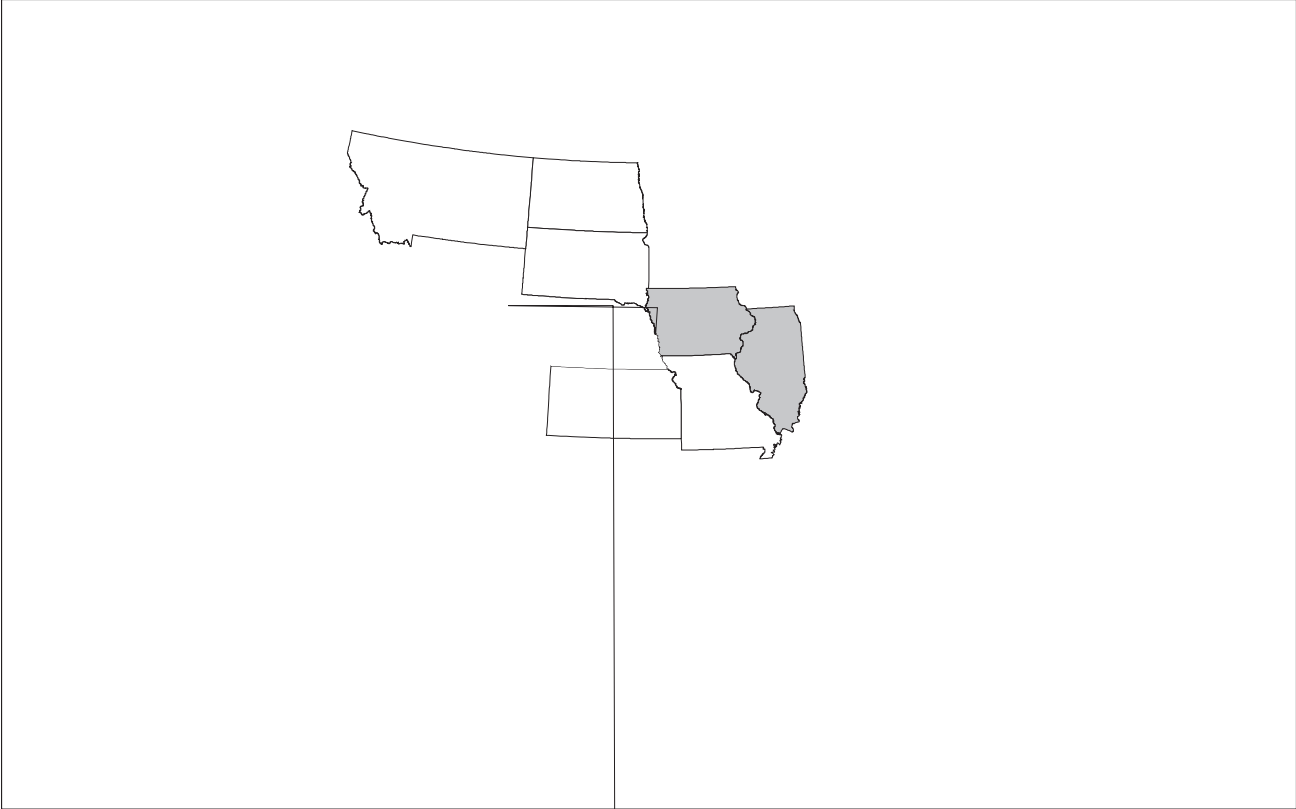


Figure 7-7

**Total Net Annual CO₂ Flux for Mineral Soils Under Agricultural Management within States,
2009, Land Converted to Cropland**



Note: Values greater than zero represent emissions, and values less than zero represent sequestration. Map accounts for fluxes associated with the Tier 2 and 3 Inventory computations. See Methodology for additional details.



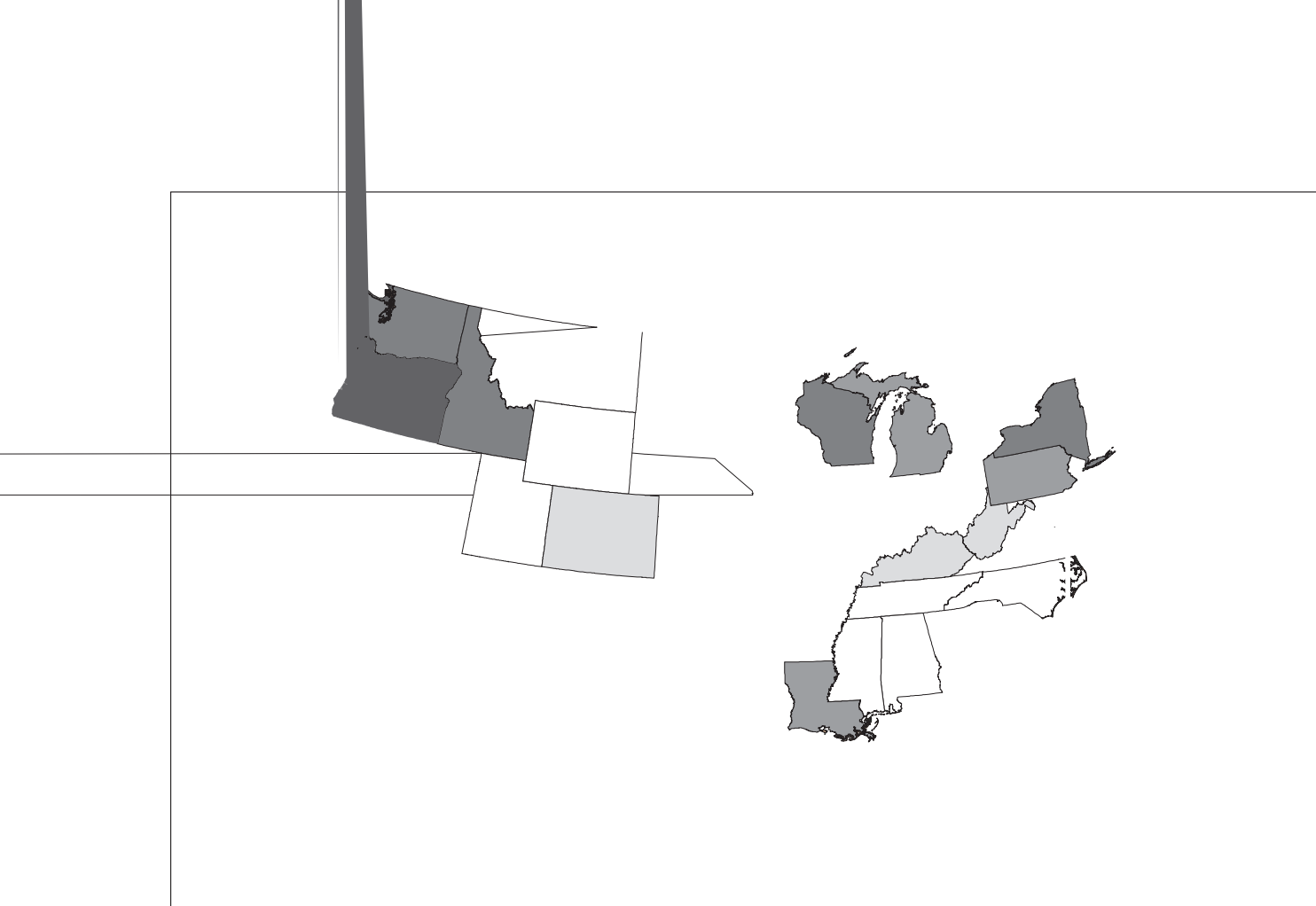
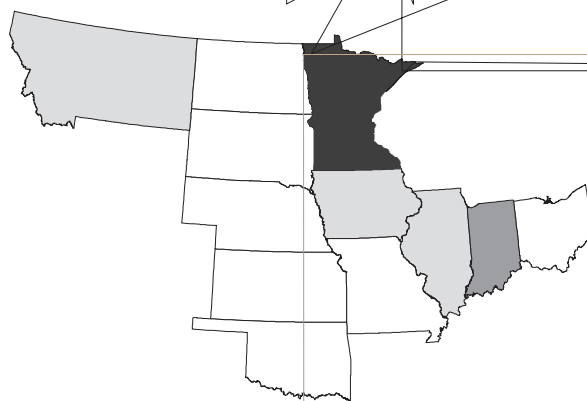


Figure 7-10

**Total Net Annual CO₂ Flux for Organic Soils Under Agricultural Management within States,
2009, *Grassland Remaining Grassland***



Note: Values greater than zero represent emissions.

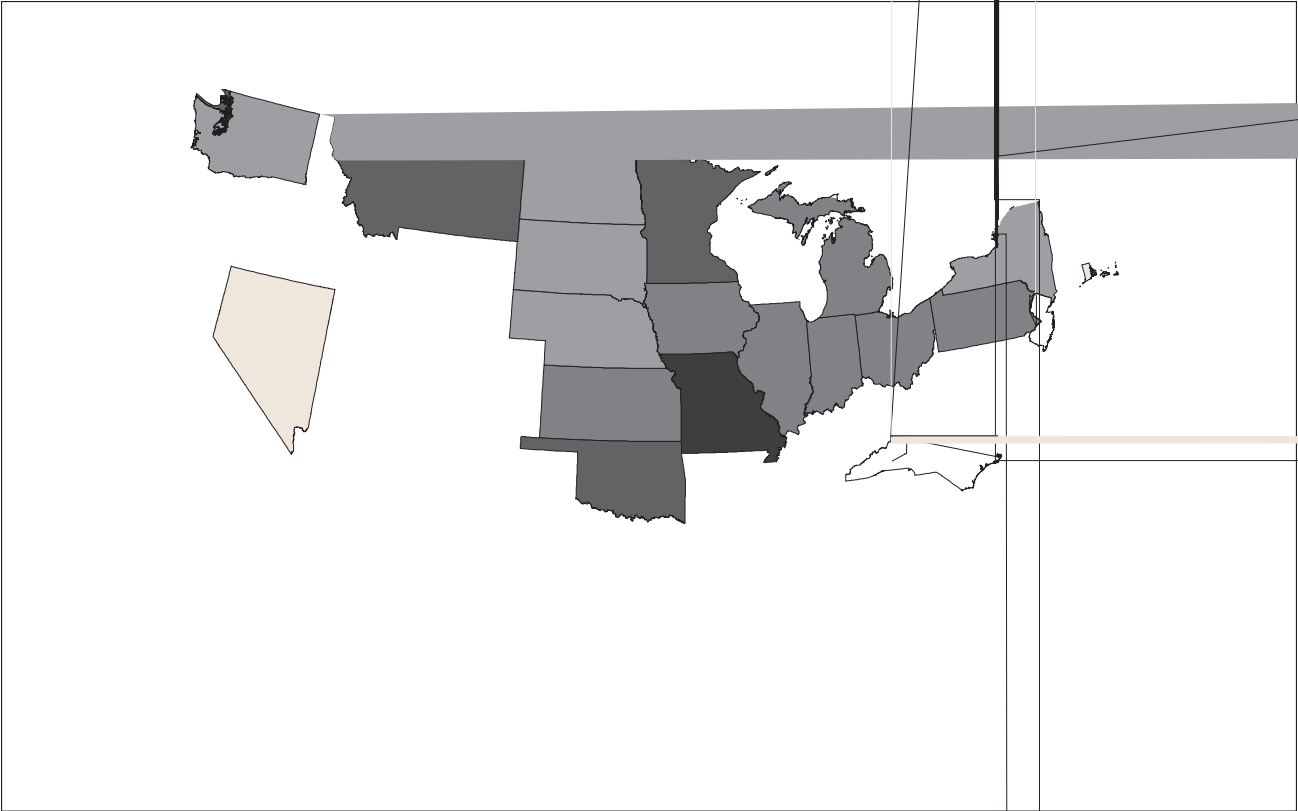
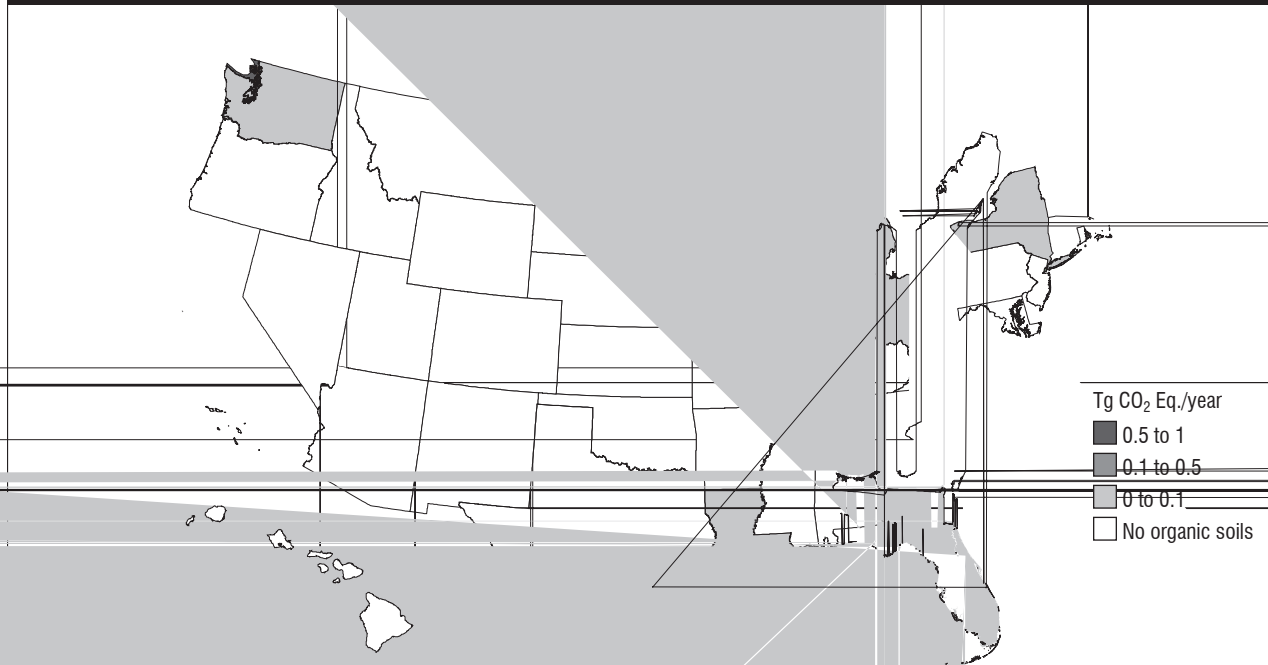


Figure 7-12

**Total Net Annual CO₂ Flux for Organic Soils Under Agricultural Management within States,
2009, *Land Converted to Grassland***



8. Waste

Waste management and treatment activities are sources of greenhouse gas emissions (see Figure 8-1). Landfills accounted for approximately 17 percent of total U.S. anthropogenic methane (CH_4) emissions in 2009, the third largest contribution of any CH_4 source in the United States. Additionally, wastewater treatment and composting of organic waste accounted for approximately 4 percent and less than 1 percent of U.S. CH_4 emissions, respectively. Nitrous oxide (N_2O) emissions from the discharge of wastewater treatment effluents into aquatic environments were estimated, as were N_2O emissions from the treatment process itself. N_2O emissions from composting were also estimated. Together, these waste activities account for less than 3 percent of total U.S. N_2O emissions. Nitrogen oxides (NO_x), carbon monoxide (CO), and non- CH_4 volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs) are emitted by waste activities, and are addressed separately at the end of this chapter. A summary of greenhouse gas emissions from the Waste chapter is presented in Table 8-1 and Table 8-2.

CO_2 , N_2O , and CH_4 emissions from the incineration of waste are accounted for in the Energy sector rather than in the Waste sector because almost all incineration of municipal solid waste (MSW) in the United States occurs at waste-to-energy facilities where useful energy is recovered. Similarly, the Energy sector also includes an estimate of emissions from burning waste tires because virtually all of the combustion occurs in industrial and utility boilers that recover energy. The incineration of waste in the United States in 2009 resulted in 12.7 Tg CO_2 Eq. emissions, nearly half of which is attributable to the combustion of plastics. For more details on emissions from the incineration of waste, see Section 3.3.

Wastewater Treatment	23.5	25.2	24.3	24.5	24.4	24.5	24.5
Composting	0.3	1.3	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7
N₂O	4.0	5.9	6.5	6.6	6.7	6.8	6.9
Domestic Wastewater Treatment	3.7	4.5	4.8	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.0
Composting	0.4	1.4	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.8
Total	175.2	143.9	144.9	144.4	144.1	149.0	150.5

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 8-2. Emissions from Waste (Gg)

Gas/Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CH₄	8,152	6,576	6,591	6,563	6,541	6,769	6,840
Landfills	7,018	5,317	5,358	5,321	5,299	5,520	5,593
Wastewater Treatment	1,118	1,199	1,159	1,167	1,163	1,168	1,167
Composting	15	60	75	75	79	80	79
N₂O	13	19	21	21	22	22	22
Domestic Wastewater Treatment	12	14	15	16	16	16	16
Composting	1	4	6	6	6	6	6

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

8.1. Landfills (IPCC Source Category 6A1)

In 2009, landfill CH₄ emissions were approximately 117.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (5,593 Gg of CH₄), representing the third largest source of CH₄ emissions in the United States, behind natural gas systems and enteric fermentation. Emissions from municipal solid waste (MSW) landfills, which received about 64.5 percent of the total solid waste generated in the United States, accounted for about 94 percent of total landfill emissions, while industrial landfills accounted for the remainder. Approximately 1,800 operational landfills exist in the United States, with the largest landfills receiving most of the waste and generating the majority of the CH₄ (*BioCycle* 2006, adjusted to include missing data from five states).

After being placed in a landfill, waste (such as paper, food scraps, and yard trimmings) is initially decomposed by aerobic bacteria. After the oxygen has been depleted, the remaining waste is available for consumption by anaerobic bacteria, which break down organic matter into substances such as cellulose, amino acids, and sugars. These substances are further broken down through fermentation into gases and short-chain organic compounds that form the substrates for the growth of methanogenic bacteria. These CH₄-producing anaerobic bacteria convert the fermentation products into stabilized organic materials and biogas consisting of approximately 50 percent carbon dioxide (CO₂) and 50 percent CH₄, by volume. Significant CH₄ production typically begins one or two years after waste disposal in a landfill and continues for 10 to 60 years or longer.

Methane emissions from landfills are a function of several factors, including: (1) the total amount of waste in MSW landfills, which is related to total waste landfilled annually; (2) the characteristics of landfills receiving waste (i.e., composition of waste-in-place, size, climate); (3) the amount of CH₄ that is recovered and either flared or used for energy purposes; and (4) the amount of CH₄ oxidized in landfills instead of being released into the atmosphere. From 1990 to 2009, net CH₄ emissions from landfills decreased by approximately 20 percent (see Table 8-3 and Table 8-4). This net CH₄ emissions decrease can be attributed to many factors, including changes in waste composition, an increase in the amount of landfill gas collected and combusted, a higher frequency of composting, and increased rates of recovery for degradable materials (e.g, paper and paperboard).

The estimated annual quantity of waste placed in MSW landfills increased from about 209 Tg in 1990 to 297 Tg in 2009, an increase of 42 percent (see Annex 3.14). Despite increased waste disposal, the amount of decomposable materials (i.e., paper and paperboard, food scraps, and yard trimmings) discarded in MSW landfills have decreased by approximately 21 percent from 1990 to 2008 (EPA, 2009b). In addition, the amount of landfill gas collected and combusted has increased. In 1990, for example, approximately 970 Gg of CH₄ were recovered and combusted (i.e., used for energy or flared) from landfills, while in 2009, 7,208 Gg CH₄ was combusted, which represents a 3 percent increase in the quantity of CH₄ recovered and combusted from 2008 levels. In 2009, an estimated 49 new landfill gas-to-energy (LFGTE) projects and 32 new flares began operation.

Over the past 9 years, however, the net CH₄ emissions have fluctuated from year to year, but a slowly increasing trend has been observed. While the amount of landfill gas collected and combusted continues to increase every year, the rate of increase in collection and combustion no longer exceeds the rate of additional CH₄ generation from the amount of organic MSW landfilled as the U.S. population grows.

Over the next several years, the total amount of municipal solid waste generated is expected to increase as the U.S. population continues to grow. The percentage of waste landfilled, however, may decline due to increased recycling and composting practices. In addition, the quantity of CH₄ that is recovered and either flared or used for energy purposes is expected to continue to increase as a result of 1996 federal regulations that require large municipal solid waste landfills to collect and combust landfill gas (see 40 CFR Part 60, Subpart Cc 2005 and 40 CFR Part 60, Subpart WWW 2005), voluntary programs that encourage CH₄ recovery and use such as EPA's Landfill Methane Outreach Program (LMOP), and federal and state incentives that promote renewable energy (e.g., tax credits, low interest loans, and Renewable Portfolio Standards).

Table 8-3. CH₄ Emissions from Landfills (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Activity	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
MSW Landfills	172.6	206.9	241.2	248.1	254.2	260.3	266.3
Industrial Landfills	11.5	14.3	15.2	15.3	15.4	15.5	15.6
Recovered							
Gas-to-Energy	(13.6)	(49.4)	(56.5)	(59.0)	(63.7)	(67.0)	(72.0)
Flared	(6.7)	(47.8)	(74.9)	(80.2)	(82.3)	(80.0)	(79.4)
Oxidized ^a	(16.4)	(12.4)	(12.5)	(12.4)	(12.4)	(12.9)	(13.1)
Total	147.4	111.7	112.5	111.7	111.3	115.9	117.5

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Parentheses indicate negative values.

^a Includes oxidation at both municipal and industrial landfills.

Table 8-4. CH₄ Emissions from Landfills (Gg)

Activity	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
MSW Landfills	8,219	9,854	11,486	11,813	12,107	12,395	12,679
Industrial Landfills	549	682	724	727	732	738	744
Recovered							
Gas-to-Energy	(649)	(2,352)	(2,691)	(2,807)	(3,033)	(3,189)	(3,429)
Flared	(321)	(2,276)	(3,566)	(3,820)	(3,918)	(3,810)	(3,779)
Oxidized ^a	(780)	(591)	(596)	(592)	(589)	(614)	(622)
Total	7,018	5,317	5,358	5,321	5,299	5,520	5,593

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Parentheses indicate negative values.

^a Includes oxidation at municipal and industrial landfills.

Methodology

A detailed description of the methodology used to estimate CH₄ emissions from landfills can be found in Annex 3.14.

CH₄ emissions from landfills were estimated as the CH₄ produced from municipal solid waste landfills, plus the CH₄ produced by industrial landfills, minus the CH₄ recovered and combusted, minus the CH₄ oxidized before being released into the atmosphere:

$$\text{CH}_{4,\text{Solid Waste}} = [\text{CH}_{4,\text{MSW}} + \text{CH}_{4,\text{Ind}} - \text{R}] - \text{Ox}$$

where,

- CH_{4,Solid Waste} = CH₄ emissions from solid waste
- CH_{4,MSW} = CH₄ generation from municipal solid waste landfills,
- CH_{4,Ind} = CH₄ generation from industrial landfills,
- R = CH₄ recovered and combusted, and
- Ox = CH₄ oxidized from MSW and industrial landfills before release to the atmosphere.

The methodology for estimating CH₄ emissions from municipal solid waste landfills is based on the first order decay model described by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC 2006). Values for the CH₄ generation

potential (L_0) and rate constant (k) were obtained from an analysis of CH_4 recovery rates for a database of 52 landfills and from published studies of other landfills (RTI 2004; EPA 1998; SWANA 1998; Peer, Thorneloe, and Epperson 1993). The rate constant was found to increase with average annual rainfall; consequently, values of k were developed for 3 ranges of rainfall. The annual quantity of waste placed in landfills was apportioned to the 3 ranges of rainfall based on the percent of the U.S. population in each of the 3 ranges, and historical census data were used to account for the shift in population to more arid areas over time. For further information, see Annex 3.14.

National landfill waste generation and disposal data for 2007, 2008, and 2009 were extrapolated based on *BioCycle* data and the U.S. Census population from 2009. Data for 1989 through 2006 were obtained from *BioCycle* (2008). Because *BioCycle* does not account for waste generated in U.S. territories, waste generation for the territories was estimated using population data obtained from the U.S. Census Bureau (2010) and national per capita solid waste generation from *BioCycle* (2008). Estimates of the annual quantity of waste landfilled for 1960 through 1988 were obtained from EPA's *Anthropogenic Methane Emissions in the United States, Estimates for 1990: Report to Congress* (EPA 1993) and an extensive landfill survey by the EPA's Office of Solid Waste in 1986 (EPA 1988). Although waste placed in landfills in the 1940s and 1950s contributes very little to current CH_4 generation, estimates for those years were included in the first order decay model for completeness in accounting for CH_4 generation rates and are based on the population in those years and the per capita rate for land disposal for the 1960s. For calculations in this inventory, wastes landfilled prior to 1980 were broken into two groups: wastes disposed in landfills (Methane Conversion Factor, MCF, of 1) and those disposed in dumps (MCF of 0.6). Please see Annex 3.14 for more details.

The estimated landfill gas recovered per year was based on updated data collected from vendors of flaring equipment, a database of landfill gas-to-energy (LFGTE) projects compiled by LMOP (EPA 2009a), and a database maintained by the Energy Information Administration (EIA) for the voluntary reporting of greenhouse gases (EIA 2007). As the EIA database only included data through 2006; 2007 to 2009 recovery for projects included in the EIA database were assumed to be the same as in 2006. The three databases were carefully compared to identify landfills that were in two or all three of the databases to avoid double counting reductions. Based on the information provided by the EIA and flare vendor databases, the CH_4 combusted by flares in operation from 1990 to 2009 was estimated. This quantity likely underestimates flaring because these databases do not have information on all flares in operation. Additionally, the EIA and LMOP databases provided data on landfill gas flow and energy generation for landfills with LFGTE projects. If a landfill in the EIA database was also in the LMOP and/or the flare vendor database, the emissions avoided were based on the EIA data because landfill owners or operators reported the amount recovered based on measurements of gas flow and concentration, and the reporting accounted for changes over time. If both flare data and LMOP recovery data were available for any of the remaining landfills (i.e., not in the EIA database), then the emissions recovery was based on the LMOP data, which provides reported landfill-specific data on gas flow for direct use projects and project capacity (i.e., megawatts) for electricity projects. The flare data, on the other hand, only provided a range of landfill gas flow for a given flare size. Given that each LFGTE project is likely to also have a flare, double counting reductions from flares and LFGTE projects in the LMOP database was avoided by subtracting emission reductions associated with LFGTE projects for which a flare had not been identified from the emission reductions associated with flares. A further explanation of the improvements made to estimate the landfill gas recovered for the current Inventory can be found in Annex 3.14.

A destruction efficiency of 99 percent was applied to CH_4 recovered to estimate CH_4 emissions avoided. The value for efficiency was selected based on the range of efficiencies (98 to 100 percent) recommended for flares in EPA's AP-42 Compilation of Air Pollutant Emission Factors, Chapter 2.4 (EPA 1998), efficiencies used to establish new source performance standards (NSPS) for landfills, and in recommendations for closed flares used in LMOP.

Emissions from industrial landfills were estimated from activity data for industrial production (ERG 2010), waste disposal factors, and the first order decay model. As over 99 percent of the organic waste placed in industrial landfills originated from the food processing (meat, vegetables, fruits) and pulp and paper industries, estimates of industrial landfill emissions focused on these two sectors (EPA 1993). The amount of CH_4 oxidized by the landfill cover at both municipal and industrial landfills was assumed to be ten percent of the CH_4 generated that is not recovered (IPCC 2006, Mancinelli and McKay 1985, Czepiel et al. 1996). To calculate net CH_4 emissions, both CH_4 recovered and CH_4 oxidized were subtracted from CH_4 generated at municipal and industrial landfills.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Several types of uncertainty are associated with the estimates of CH_4 emissions from landfills. The primary

uncertainty concerns the characterization of landfills. Information is not available on two fundamental factors affecting CH₄ production: the amount and composition of waste placed in every landfill for each year of its operation. The approach used here assumes that the CH₄ generation potential and the rate of decay that produces CH₄, as determined from several studies of CH₄ recovery at landfills, are representative of U.S. landfills.

Additionally, the approach used to estimate the contribution of industrial wastes to total CH₄ generation introduces uncertainty. Aside from uncertainty in estimating CH₄ generation potential, uncertainty exists in the estimates of oxidation by cover soils. There is also uncertainty in the estimates of CH₄ that is recovered by flaring and energy projects. The IPCC default value of 10 percent for uncertainty in recovery estimates was used in the uncertainty analysis when metering was in place (for about 64 percent of the CH₄ estimated to be recovered). For flaring without metered recovery data (approximately 34 percent of the CH₄ estimated to be recovered), a much higher uncertainty of approximately 50 percent was used (e.g., when recovery was estimated as 50 percent of the flare's design capacity).

N₂O emissions from the application of sewage sludge on landfills are not explicitly modeled as part of greenhouse gas emissions from landfills. N₂O emissions from sewage sludge applied to landfills would be relatively small because the microbial environment in landfills is not very conducive to the nitrification and denitrification processes that result in N₂O emissions. Furthermore, the 2006 IPCC Guidelines (IPCC 2006) did not include a methodology for estimating N₂O emissions from solid waste disposal sites "because they are not significant." Therefore, any uncertainty or bias caused by not including N₂O emissions from landfills is expected to be minimal.

The results of the IPCC Good Practice Guidance Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 8-5. Landfill CH₄ emissions in 2009 were estimated to be between 61.1 and 164.5 Tg CO₂ Eq., which indicates a range of 48 percent below to 40 percent above the 2009 emission estimate of 117.5 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 8-5. Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ Emissions from Landfills (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a
		Estimate	

EIA and LMOP databases.

The flare correction factor for the 1990 through 2008 Inventory report consisted of approximately 512 cases where flares were not directly associated with a landfill and/or LFGTE project in the EIA and/or LMOP databases. For these projects, CH₄ avoided would be overestimated as both the CH₄ avoided from flaring and the LFGTE project would be counted. To abstain from overestimating emissions avoided from flaring, the CH₄ avoided from flares with no identified landfill or LFGTE project were determined and the flaring estimate from the flare vendor database was reduced by this quantity (referred to as a flare correction factor) on a state-by-state basis.

If comprehensive data on flares were available, the majority of LFGTE projects in the EIA and LMOP databases would have an identified flare because it is assumed that most LFGTE projects have flares. However, given that the flare vendor data only covers approximately 50 to 75 percent of the flare population, an associated flare was not identified for all LFGTE projects. These LFGTE projects likely have flares; however, flares were unable to be identified due to one of two reasons: (1) inadequate identifier information provided by the flare vendor; or (2) a lack of the flare in the flare vendor database.

Additional effort was undertaken to improve the methodology behind the flare correction factor for the current Inventory to reduce the overall number of flares that were not matched (512) to landfills and/or LFGTE projects in the EIA and LMOP databases. Each flare in the flare vendor database not associated with a LFGTE project in the EIA or LMOP databases was investigated to determine if it could be matched to either a landfill in the EIA database or a LFGTE project in the LMOP database. For some unmatched flares, the location information was missing or incorrectly transferred to the flare vendor database. In other instances, the landfill names were slightly different between what the flare vendor provided and the actual landfill name as listed in the EIA and/or LMOP databases.

It was found that a large majority of the unidentified flares are associated with landfills in LMOP that are currently flaring, but are also considering LFGTE. These landfill projects considering a LFGTE project are labeled as candidate, potential, or construction in the LMOP database. The flare vendor database was improved to match flares with operational, shutdown as well as candidate, potential, and construction LFGTE projects, thereby reducing the total number of unidentified flares in the flare vendor database, all of which are used in the flare correction factor. The results of this effort significantly decreased the number of flares used in the flare correction factor from 512 to 27, impacted emission estimates for the entire time series, and resulted in an average annual decrease of 8.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (6.5 percent) in CH₄ emissions from the Landfills source category for the period 1990 through 2008.

Planned Improvements

Beginning in 2010, all MSW landfills that accepted waste on or after January 1, 1980 and generate CH₄ in amounts equivalent to 25,000 metric tons or more of carbon dioxide equivalent (CO₂ Eq.) will be required to calculate and report their greenhouse gas emissions to EPA through its Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program (GHGRP). This consists of the landfill, landfill gas collection systems, and landfill gas destruction devices, including flares. In addition to reporting greenhouse gas information to EPA, landfill-specific characteristics such as annual waste disposal quantity, waste composition data, surface area, and cover type must also be reported. The data collected from the GHGRP will be used in future inventories to revise the parameters used in the CH₄ generation calculations, including degradable organic carbon (DOC), the flare correction factor, the methane correction factor (MCF), fraction of DOC dissimilated (DOC_F), the destruction efficiency of flares, the oxidation factor (Ox), and the rate constant (k). The addition of this higher tier data will improve the emission calculations to provide a more accurate representation of greenhouse gas emissions from MSW landfills.

[Begin Text Box]

Box 8-1: Biogenic Wastes in Landfills

Regarding the depositing of wastes of biogenic origin in landfills, empirical evidence shows that some of these wastes degrade very slowly in landfills, and the C they contain is effectively sequestered in landfills over a period of time (Barlaz 1998, 2006). Estimates of C removals from landfilling of forest products, yard trimmings, and food scraps are further described in the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter, based on methods presented in IPCC (2003) and IPCC (2006).

[End Box]

8.2. Wastewater Treatment (IPCC Source Category 6B)

Wastewater treatment processes can produce anthropogenic CH₄ and N₂O emissions. Wastewater from domestic²⁰⁰ and industrial sources is treated to remove soluble organic matter, suspended solids, pathogenic organisms, and chemical contaminants. Treatment may either occur on site, most commonly through septic systems or package plants, or off site at centralized treatment systems. Centralized wastewater treatment systems may include a variety of processes, ranging from lagooning to advanced tertiary treatment technology for removing nutrients. In the United States, approximately 20 percent of domestic wastewater is treated in septic systems or other on-site systems, while the rest is collected and treated centrally (U.S. Census Bureau 2009).

Soluble organic matter is generally removed using biological processes in which microorganisms consume the organic matter for maintenance and growth. The resulting biomass (sludge) is removed from the effluent prior to discharge to the receiving stream. Microorganisms can biodegrade soluble organic material in wastewater under aerobic or anaerobic conditions, where the latter condition produces CH₄. During collection and treatment, wastewater may be accidentally or deliberately managed under anaerobic conditions. In addition, the sludge may be further biodegraded under aerobic or anaerobic conditions. The generation of N₂O may also result from the treatment of domestic wastewater during both nitrification and denitrification of the N present, usually in the form of urea, ammonia, and proteins. These compounds are converted to nitrate (NO₃) through the aerobic process of nitrification. Denitrification occurs under anoxic conditions (without free oxygen), and involves the biological conversion of nitrate into dinitrogen gas (N₂). N₂O can be an intermediate product of both processes, but is more often associated with denitrification.

The principal factor in determining the CH₄ generation potential of wastewater is the amount of degradable organic material in the wastewater. Common parameters used to measure the organic component of the wastewater are the Biochemical Oxygen Demand (BOD) and Chemical Oxygen Demand (COD). Under the same conditions, wastewater with higher COD (or BOD) concentrations will generally yield more CH₄ than wastewater with lower COD (or BOD) concentrations. BOD represents the amount of oxygen that would be required to completely consume the organic matter contained in the wastewater through aerobic decomposition processes, while COD measures the total material available for chemical oxidation (both biodegradable and non-biodegradable). Because BOD is an aerobic parameter, it is preferable to use COD to estimate CH₄ production. The principal factor in determining the N₂O generation potential of wastewater is the amount of N in the wastewater.

In 2009, CH₄ emissions from domestic wastewater treatment were 16.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. (760 Gg). Emissions gradually increased from 1990 through 1997, but have decreased since that time due to decreasing percentages of wastewater being treated in anaerobic systems, including reduced use of on-site septic systems and central anaerobic treatment systems. In 2009, CH₄ emissions from industrial wastewater treatment were estimated to be 8.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (407 Gg). Industrial emission sources have increased across the time series through 1999 and then fluctuated up and down with production changes associated with the treatment of wastewater from the pulp and paper manufacturing, meat and poultry processing, fruit and vegetable processing, starch-based ethanol production, and petroleum refining industries. Table 8-6 and Table 8-7 provide CH₄ and N₂O emission estimates from domestic and industrial wastewater treatment.

With respect to N₂O, the United States identifies two distinct sources for N₂O emissions from domestic wastewater: emissions from centralized wastewater treatment processes, and emissions from effluent from centralized treatment systems that has been discharged into aquatic environments. The 2009 emissions of N₂O from centralized wastewater treatment processes and from effluent were estimated to be 0.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1 Gg) and 4.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (15.2 Gg), respectively. Total N₂O emissions from domestic wastewater were estimated to be 5.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. (16.2 Gg). N₂O emissions from wastewater treatment processes gradually increased across the time series as a result of increasing U.S. population and protein consumption.

Table 8-6. CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Domestic and Industrial Wastewater Treatment (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Activity	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
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²⁰⁰ Throughout the inventory, emissions from domestic wastewater also include any commercial and industrial wastewater collected and co-treated with domestic wastewater.

CH₄	23.5		25.2		24.3	24.5	24.4	24.5	24.5
Domestic	16.4		16.8		16.2	16.0	15.9	15.8	16.0
Industrial*	7.1		8.4		8.2	8.5	8.5	8.6	8.5
N₂O	3.7		4.5		4.8	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.0
Domestic	3.7		4.5		4.8	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.0
Total	27.2		29.6		29.1	29.3	29.3	29.5	29.5

* Industrial activity includes the pulp and paper manufacturing, meat and poultry processing, fruit and vegetable processing, starch-based ethanol production, and petroleum refining industries.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 8-7. CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Domestic and Industrial Wastewater Treatment (Gg)

Activity	1990		2000		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
CH₄	1,118		1,199		1,159	1,167	1,163	1,168	1,167
Domestic	780		801		770	764	758	759	760
Industrial*	338		398		389	403	405	409	407
N₂O	12		14		15	16	16	16	16
Domestic	12		14		15	16	16	16	16

* Industrial activity includes the pulp and paper manufacturing, meat and poultry processing, fruit and vegetable processing, starch-based ethanol production, and petroleum refining industries.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

Domestic Wastewater CH₄ Emission Estimates

Domestic wastewater CH₄ emissions originate from both septic systems and from centralized treatment systems, such as publicly owned treatment works (POTWs). Within these centralized systems, CH₄ emissions can arise from aerobic systems that are not well managed or that are designed to have periods of anaerobic activity (e.g., constructed wetlands), anaerobic systems (anaerobic lagoons and facultative lagoons), and from anaerobic digesters when the captured biogas is not completely combusted. CH₄ emissions from septic systems were estimated by multiplying the total 5-day BOD (BOD₅) produced in the United States by the percent of wastewater treated in septic systems (20 percent), the maximum CH₄ producing capacity for domestic wastewater (0.60 kg CH₄/kg BOD), and the CH₄ correction factor (MCF) for septic systems (0.5). CH₄ emissions from POTWs were estimated by multiplying the total BOD₅ produced in the United States by the percent of wastewater treated centrally (80 percent), the relative percentage of wastewater treated by aerobic and anaerobic systems, the relative percentage of wastewater facilities with primary treatment, the percentage of BOD₅ treated after primary treatment (67.5 percent), the maximum CH₄-producing capacity of domestic wastewater (0.6), and the relative MCFs for aerobic (zero or 0.3) and anaerobic (0.8) systems with all aerobic systems assumed to be well-managed. CH₄ emissions from anaerobic digesters were estimated by multiplying the amount of biogas generated by wastewater sludge treated in anaerobic digesters by the proportion of CH₄ in digester biogas (0.65), the density of CH₄ (662 g CH₄/m³ CH₄), and the destruction efficiency associated with burning the biogas in an energy/thermal device (0.99). The methodological equations are:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Emissions from Septic Systems} &= A \\ &= (\% \text{ onsite}) \times (\text{total BOD}_5 \text{ produced}) \times (B_o) \times (\text{MCF-septic}) \times 1/10^6 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Emissions from Centrally Treated Aerobic Systems} &= B \\ &= [(\% \text{ collected}) \times (\text{total BOD}_5 \text{ produced}) \times (\% \text{ aerobic}) \times (\% \text{ aerobic w/out primary}) + (\% \text{ collected}) \times (\text{total BOD}_5 \text{ produced}) \times (\% \text{ aerobic}) \times (\% \text{ aerobic w/primary}) \times (1 - \% \text{ BOD removed in prim. treat.})] \times (\% \text{ operations not well managed}) \times (B_o) \times (\text{MCF-aerobic_not_well_man}) \times 1/10^6 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Emissions from Centrally Treated Anaerobic Systems} &= C \\ &= [(\% \text{ collected}) \times (\text{total BOD}_5 \text{ produced}) \times (\% \text{ anaerobic}) \times (\% \text{ anaerobic w/out primary}) + (\% \text{ collected}) \times (\text{total BOD}_5 \text{ produced}) \times (\% \text{ anaerobic}) \times (\% \text{ anaerobic w/primary}) \times (1 - \% \text{ BOD removed in prim. treat.})] \times (B_o) \times (\text{MCF-anaerobic}) \times 1/10^6 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Emissions from Anaerobic Digesters} = D$$

$$= [(POTW_flow_AD) \times (\text{digester gas}) / (\text{per capita flow})] \times \text{conversion to m}^3 \times (FRAC_CH_4) \times (365.25) \times (\text{density of } CH_4) \times (1-DE) \times 1/10^9$$

$$\text{Total } CH_4 \text{ Emissions (Gg)} = A + B + C + D$$

Where:

% onsite	= Flow to septic systems / total flow
% collected	= Flow to POTWs / total flow
% aerobic	= Flow to aerobic systems / total flow to POTWs
% anaerobic	= Flow to anaerobic systems / total flow to POTWs
% aerobic w/out primary	= Percent of aerobic systems that do not employ primary treatment
% aerobic w/primary	= Percent of aerobic systems that employ primary treatment
% BOD removed in prim. treat.	= 32.5%
% operations not well managed	= Percent of aerobic systems that are not well managed and in which some anaerobic degradation occurs
% anaerobic w/out primary	= Percent of anaerobic systems that do not employ primary treatment
% anaerobic w/primary	= Percent of anaerobic systems that employ primary treatment
Total BOD ₅ produced	= kg BOD/capita/day × U.S. population × 365.25 days/yr
B ₀	= Maximum CH ₄ -producing capacity for domestic wastewater (0.60 kg CH ₄ /kg BOD)
MCF-septic	= CH ₄ correction factor for septic systems (0.5)
1/10 ⁶	= Conversion factor, kg to Gg
MCF-aerobic_not_well_man.	= CH ₄ correction factor for aerobic systems that are not well managed (0.3)
MCF-anaerobic	= CH ₄ correction factor for anaerobic systems (0.8)
DE	= CH ₄ destruction efficiency from flaring or burning in engine (0.99 for enclosed flares)
POTW_flow_AD	= Wastewater influent flow to POTWs that have anaerobic digesters (gal)
digester gas	= Cubic feet of digester gas produced per person per day (1.0 ft ³ /person/day) (Metcalf and Eddy 1991)
per capita flow	= Wastewater flow to POTW per person per day (100 gal/person/day)
conversion to m ³	= Conversion factor, ft ³ to m ³ (0.0283)
FRAC_CH ₄	= Proportion CH ₄ in biogas (0.65)
density of CH ₄	= 662 (g CH ₄ /m ³ CH ₄)
1/10 ⁹	= Conversion factor, g to Gg

U.S. population data were taken from the U.S. Census Bureau International Database (U.S. Census 2010) and include the populations of the United States, American Samoa, Guam, Northern Mariana Islands, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands. Table 8-8 presents U.S. population and total BOD₅ produced for 1990 through 2009, while Table 8-9 presents domestic wastewater CH₄ emissions for both septic and centralized systems in 2009. The proportions of domestic wastewater treated onsite versus at centralized treatment plants were based on data from the 1989, 1991, 1993, 1995, 1997, 1999, 2001, 2003, 2005, 2007, and 2009 American Housing Surveys conducted by the U.S. Census Bureau (U.S. Census 2009), with data for intervening years obtained by linear interpolation. The percent of wastewater flow to aerobic and anaerobic systems, the percent of aerobic and anaerobic systems that do and do not employ primary treatment, and the wastewater flow to POTWs that have anaerobic digesters were obtained from the 1992, 1996, 2000, and 2004 Clean Watershed Needs Survey (EPA 1992, 1996, 2000, and 2004a). Data for intervening years were obtained by linear interpolation and the years 2004 through 2009 were forecasted from the rest of the time series. The BOD₅ production rate (0.09 kg/capita/day) and the percent BOD₅ removed by primary treatment for domestic wastewater were obtained from Metcalf and Eddy (1991 and 2003). The CH₄ emission factor (0.6 kg CH₄/kg BOD₅) and the MCFs were taken from IPCC (2006). The CH₄ destruction efficiency for methane recovered from sludge digestion operations, 99 percent, was selected based on the range of efficiencies (98 to 100 percent) recommended for flares in AP-42 Compilation of Air Pollutant Emission Factors, Chapter 2.4 (EPA 1998), efficiencies used to establish new source performance standards (NSPS) for landfills, and in recommendations for closed flares used by the Landfill Methane Outreach Program (LMOP). The cubic feet of digester gas produced per person per day (1.0 ft³/person/day) and the proportion of CH₄ in biogas (0.65) come from

Metcalf and Eddy (1991). The wastewater flow to a POTW (100 gal/person/day) was taken from the Great Lakes-Upper Mississippi River Board of State and Provincial Public Health and Environmental Managers, "Recommended Standards for Wastewater Facilities (Ten-State Standards)" (2004).

Table 8-8. U.S. Population (Millions) and Domestic Wastewater BOD₅ Produced (Gg)

Year	Population	BOD ₅
1990	254	8,333
2000	286	9,414
2005	300	9,864
2006	303	9,958
2007	306	10,057
2008	309	10,149
2009	311	10,236

Source: U.S. Census Bureau (2010); Metcalf & Eddy 1991 and 2003.

Table 8-9. Domestic Wastewater CH₄ Emissions from Septic and Centralized Systems (2009)

	CH ₄ emissions (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	% of Domestic Wastewater CH ₄
Septic Systems	13.2	82.5%
Centralized Systems	2.8	17.5%
Total	16.0	100%

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Industrial Wastewater CH₄ Emission Estimates

CH₄ emissions estimates from industrial wastewater were developed according to the methodology described in IPCC (2006). Industry categories that are likely to produce significant CH₄ emissions from wastewater treatment were identified. High volumes of wastewater generated and a high organic wastewater load were the main criteria. The top five industries that meet these criteria are pulp and paper manufacturing; meat and poultry processing; vegetables, fruits, and juices processing; starch-based ethanol production; and petroleum refining. Wastewater treatment emissions for these sectors for 2009 are displayed in Table 8-10 below. Table 8-11 contains production data for these industries.

Table 8-10. Industrial Wastewater CH₄ Emissions by Sector (2009)

	CH ₄ emissions (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	% of Industrial Wastewater CH ₄
Pulp & Paper	4.1	48%
Meat & Poultry	3.6	42%
Petroleum Refineries	0.6	7%
Fruit & Vegetables	0.1	1%
Ethanol Refineries	0.1	1%
Total	8.5	100%

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 8-11. U.S. Pulp and Paper, Meat, Poultry, Vegetables, Fruits and Juices, Ethanol, and Petroleum Refining Production (Tg)

Year	Pulp and Paper	Meat (Live Weight Killed)	Poultry (Live Weight Killed)	Vegetables, Fruits and Juices	Ethanol	Petroleum Refining
1990	128.9	27.3	14.6	38.7	2.7	702.4
2000	142.8	32.1	22.2	50.9	4.9	795.2
2005	131.4	31.4	25.1	42.9	11.7	818.6
2006	137.4	32.5	25.5	42.9	14.5	826.7
2007	135.9	33.4	26.0	44.7	19.4	827.6
2008	134.5	34.4	26.6	45.1	26.9	836.8

2009	137.0	33.8	25.2	47.0	31.7	822.4
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CH₄ emissions from these categories were estimated by multiplying the annual product output by the average outflow, the organics loading (in COD) in the outflow, the percentage of organic loading assumed to degrade anaerobically, and the emission factor. Ratios of BOD:COD in various industrial wastewaters were obtained from EPA (1997a) and used to estimate COD loadings. The B_o value used for all industries is the IPCC default value of 0.25 kg CH₄/kg COD (IPCC 2006).

For each industry, the percent of plants in the industry that treat wastewater on site, the percent of plants that have a primary treatment step prior to biological treatment, and the percent of plants that treat wastewater anaerobically were defined. The percent of wastewater treated anaerobically onsite (TA) was estimated for both primary treatment and secondary treatment. For plants that have primary treatment in place, an estimate of COD that is removed prior to wastewater treatment in the anaerobic treatment units was incorporated.

The methodological equations are:

$$\text{CH}_4 (\text{industrial wastewater}) = P \times W \times \text{COD} \times \%TA \times B_o \times \text{MCF}$$

$$\%TA_p = [\%Plants_o \times \%WW_{a,p} \times \%COD_p]$$

$$\%TA_s = [\%Plants_a \times \%WW_{a,s} \times \%COD_s] + [\%Plants_t \times \%WW_{a,t} \times \%COD_s]$$

Where:

CH ₄ (industrial wastewater)	= Total CH ₄ emissions from industrial wastewater (kg/year)
P	= Industry output (metric tons/year)
W	= Wastewater generated (m ³ /metric ton of product)
COD	= Organics loading in wastewater (kg/m ³)
%TA	= Percent of wastewater treated anaerobically on site
%TA _p	= Percent of wastewater treated anaerobically on site in primary treatment
%TA _s	= Percent of wastewater treated anaerobically on site in secondary treatment
%Plants _o	= Percent of plants with onsite treatment
%WW _{a,p}	= Percent of wastewater treated anaerobically in primary treatment
%COD _p	= Percent of COD entering primary treatment
%Plants _a	= Percent of plants with anaerobic secondary treatment
%Plants _t	= Percent of plants with other secondary treatment
%WW _{a,s}	= Percent of wastewater treated anaerobically in anaerobic secondary treatment
%WW _{a,t}	= percent of wastewater treated anaerobically in other secondary treatment
%COD _s	= percent of COD entering secondary treatment
B _o	= Maximum CH ₄ producing potential of industrial wastewater (default value of 0.25 kg CH ₄ /kg COD)
MCF	= CH ₄ correction factor, indicating the extent to which the organic content (measured as COD) degrades anaerobically

As described below, the values presented in Table 8-12 were used in the emission calculations.

Table 8-12. Variables Used to Calculate Percent Wastewater Treated Anaerobically by Industry (%)

Variable	Industry						
	Pulp and Paper	Meat Processing	Poultry Processing	Fruit/Vegetable Processing	Ethanol Production – Wet Mill	Ethanol Production – Dry Mill	Petroleum Refining
%TA _p	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
%TA _s	10.5	33	25	4.2	33.3	75	100
%Plants _o	60	100	100	11	100	100	100
%Plants _a	25	33	25	5.5	33.3	75	100
%Plants _t	35	67	75	5.5	66.7	25	0
%WW _{a,p}	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
%WW _{a,s}	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
%WW _{a,t}	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

%COD _p	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
%COD _s	42	100	100	77	100	100	100

Pulp and Paper. Wastewater treatment for the pulp and paper industry typically includes neutralization, screening, sedimentation, and flotation/hydrocycloning to remove solids (World Bank 1999, Nemerow and Dasgupta 1991). Secondary treatment (storage, settling, and biological treatment) mainly consists of lagooning. In determining the percent that degrades anaerobically, both primary and secondary treatment were considered. In the United States, primary treatment is focused on solids removal, equalization, neutralization, and color reduction (EPA 1993). The vast majority of pulp and paper mills with on-site treatment systems use mechanical clarifiers to remove suspended solids from the wastewater. About 10 percent of pulp and paper mills with treatment systems use settling ponds for primary treatment and these are more likely to be located at mills that do not perform secondary treatment (EPA 1993). However, because the vast majority of primary treatment operations at U.S. pulp and paper mills use mechanical clarifiers, and less than 10 percent of pulp and paper wastewater is managed in primary settling ponds that are not expected to have anaerobic conditions, negligible emissions are assumed to occur during primary treatment.

Approximately 42 percent of the BOD passes on to secondary treatment, which consists of activated sludge, aerated stabilization basins, or non-aerated stabilization basins. No anaerobic activity is assumed to occur in activated sludge systems or aerated stabilization basins (note: although IPCC recognizes that some CH₄ can be emitted from anaerobic pockets, they recommend an MCF of zero). However, about 25 percent of the wastewater treatment systems used in the United States are non-aerated stabilization basins. These basins are typically 10 to 25 feet deep. These systems are classified as anaerobic deep lagoons (MCF = 0.8).

A time series of CH₄ emissions for 1990 through 2001 was developed based on production figures reported in the Lockwood-Post Directory (Lockwood-Post 2002). Published data from the American Forest and Paper Association, data published by Paper Loop, and other published statistics were used to estimate production for 2002 through 2009 (Pulp and Paper 2005, 2006, and monthly reports from 2003 through 2008; Paper 360° 2007). The overall wastewater outflow was estimated to be 85 m³/metric ton, and the average BOD concentrations in raw wastewater was estimated to be 0.4 gram BOD/liter (EPA 1997b, EPA 1993, World Bank 1999).

Meat and Poultry Processing. The meat and poultry processing industry makes extensive use of anaerobic lagoons in sequence with screening, fat traps and dissolved air flotation when treating wastewater on site. About 33 percent of meat processing operations (EPA 2002) and 25 percent of poultry processing operations (U.S. Poultry 2006) perform on-site treatment in anaerobic lagoons. The IPCC default B₀ of 0.25 kg CH₄/kg COD and default MCF of 0.8 for anaerobic lagoons were used to estimate the CH₄ produced from these on-site treatment systems. Production data, in carcass weight and live weight killed for the meat and poultry industry, were obtained from the USDA Agricultural Statistics Database and the Agricultural Statistics Annual Reports (USDA 2010). Data collected by EPA's Office of Water provided estimates for wastewater flows into anaerobic lagoons: 5.3 and 12.5 m³/metric ton for meat and poultry production (live weight killed), respectively (EPA 2002). The loadings are 2.8 and 1.5 g BOD/liter for meat and poultry, respectively.

Vegetables, Fruits, and Juices Processing. Treatment of wastewater from fruits, vegetables, and juices processing includes screening, coagulation/settling, and biological treatment (lagooning). The flows are frequently seasonal, and robust treatment systems are preferred for on-site treatment. Effluent is suitable for discharge to the sewer. This industry is likely to use lagoons intended for aerobic operation, but the large seasonal loadings may develop limited anaerobic zones. In addition, some anaerobic lagoons may also be used (Nemerow and Dasgupta 1991). Consequently, 4.2 percent of these wastewater organics are assumed to degrade anaerobically. The IPCC default B₀ of 0.25 kg CH₄/kg COD and default MCF of 0.8 for anaerobic treatment were used to estimate the CH₄ produced from these on-site treatment systems. The USDA National Agricultural Statistics Service (USDA 2010) provided production data for potatoes, other vegetables, citrus fruit, non-citrus fruit, and grapes processed for wine. Outflow and BOD data, presented in Table 8-13, were obtained from EPA (1974) for potato, citrus fruit, and apple processing, and from EPA (1975) for all other sectors.

Table 8-13. Wastewater Flow (m³/ton) and BOD Production (g/L) for U.S. Vegetables, Fruits, and Juices Production

Commodity	Wastewater Outflow (m ³ /ton)	BOD (g/L)
Vegetables		
Potatoes	10.27	1.765
Other Vegetables	8.74	0.801

Fruit		
Apples	3.66	1.371
Citrus	10.11	0.317
Non-citrus	12.42	1.204
Grapes (for wine)	2.78	1.831

Ethanol Production. Ethanol, or ethyl alcohol, is produced primarily for use as a fuel component, but is also used in industrial applications and in the manufacture of beverage alcohol. Ethanol can be produced from the fermentation of sugar-based feedstocks (e.g., molasses and beets), starch- or grain-based feedstocks (e.g., corn, sorghum, and beverage waste), and cellulosic biomass feedstocks (e.g., agricultural wastes, wood, and bagasse). Ethanol can also be produced synthetically from ethylene or hydrogen and carbon monoxide. However, synthetic ethanol comprises only about 2 percent of ethanol production, and although the Department of Energy predicts cellulosic ethanol to greatly increase in the coming years, currently it is only in an experimental stage in the United States. According to the Renewable Fuels Association, 82 percent of ethanol production facilities use corn as the sole feedstock and 7 percent of facilities use a combination of corn and another starch-based feedstock. The fermentation of corn is the principal ethanol production process in the United States and is expected to increase through 2012, and potentially more; therefore, emissions associated with wastewater treatment at starch-based ethanol production facilities were estimated (ERG 2006).

Ethanol is produced from corn (or other starch-based feedstocks) primarily by two methods: wet milling and dry milling. Historically, the majority of ethanol was produced by the wet milling process, but now the majority is produced by the dry milling process. The wastewater generated at ethanol production facilities is handled in a variety of ways. Dry milling facilities often combine the resulting evaporator condensate with other process wastewaters, such as equipment wash water, scrubber water, and boiler blowdown and anaerobically treat this wastewater using various types of digesters. Wet milling facilities often treat their steepwater condensate in anaerobic systems followed by aerobic polishing systems. Wet milling facilities may treat the stillage (or processed stillage) from the ethanol fermentation/distillation process separately or together with steepwater and/or wash water. CH₄ generated in anaerobic digesters is commonly collected and either flared or used as fuel in the ethanol production process (ERG 2006).

Available information was compiled from the industry on wastewater generation rates, which ranged from 1.25 gallons per gallon ethanol produced (for dry milling) to 10 gallons per gallon ethanol produced (for wet milling) (Ruocco 2006a,b; Merrick 1998; Donovan 1996; and NRBP 2001). COD concentrations were also found to be about 3 g/L (Ruocco 2006a; Merrick 1998; White and Johnson 2003). The amount of wastewater treated anaerobically was estimated, along with how much of the CH₄ is recovered through the use of biomethanators (ERG 2006). CH₄ emissions were then estimated as follows:

$$\text{Methane} = [\text{Production} \times \text{Flow} \times \text{COD} \times 3.785 \times (\% \text{Plants}_o \times \% \text{WW}_{a,p} \times \% \text{COD}_p) + [\% \text{Plants}_a \times \% \text{WW}_{a,s} \times \% \text{COD}_s] + [\% \text{Plants}_t \times \% \text{WW}_{a,t} \times \% \text{COD}_s)] \times B_o \times \text{MCF} \times \% \text{Not Recovered}] + [\text{Production} \times \text{Flow} \times 3.785 \times \text{COD} \times (\% \text{Plants}_o \times \% \text{WW}_{a,p} \times \% \text{COD}_p) + [\% \text{Plants}_a \times \% \text{WW}_{a,s} \times \% \text{COD}_s] + [\% \text{Plants}_t \times \% \text{WW}_{a,t} \times \% \text{COD}_s)] \times B_o \times \text{MCF} \times (\% \text{Recovered}) \times (1 - \text{DE})] \times 1/10^9$$

Where:

Production	= gallons ethanol produced (wet milling or dry milling)
Flow	= gallons wastewater generated per gallon ethanol produced (1.25 dry milling, 10 wet milling)
COD	= COD concentration in influent (3 g/l)
3.785	= conversion, gallons to liters
%Plants _o	= percent of plants with onsite treatment (100%)
%WW _{a,p}	= percent of wastewater treated anaerobically in primary treatment (0%)
%COD _p	= percent of COD entering primary treatment (100%)
%Plants _a	= percent of plants with anaerobic secondary treatment (33.3% wet, 75% dry)
%Plants _t	= percent of plants with other secondary treatment (66.7% wet, 25% dry)
%WW _{a,s}	= percent of wastewater treated anaerobically in anaerobic secondary treatment (100%)
%WW _{a,t}	= percent of wastewater treated anaerobically in other secondary treatment (0%)
%COD _s	= percent of COD entering secondary treatment (100%)

B_o	= maximum methane producing capacity (0.25 g CH ₄ /g COD)
MCF	= methane conversion factor (0.8 for anaerobic systems)
% Recovered	= percent of wastewater treated in system with emission recovery
% Not Recovered	= 1 - percent of wastewater treated in system with emission recovery
DE	= destruction efficiency of recovery system (99%)
1/10 ⁹	= conversion factor, g to Gg

A time series of CH₄ emissions for 1990 through 2009 was developed based on production data from the Renewable Fuels Association (RFA 2010).

Petroleum Refining. Petroleum refining wastewater treatment operations produce CH₄ emissions from anaerobic wastewater treatment. The wastewater inventory section includes CH₄ emissions from petroleum refining wastewater treated on site under intended or unintended anaerobic conditions. Most facilities use aerated biological systems, such as trickling filters or rotating biological contactors; these systems can also exhibit anaerobic conditions that can result in the production of CH₄. Oil/water separators are used as a primary treatment method; however, it is unlikely that any COD is removed in this step.

Available information from the industry was compiled. The wastewater generation rate, from CARB (2007) and Timm (1985), was determined to be 35 gallons per barrel of finished product. An average COD value in the wastewater was estimated at 0.45 kg/m³ (Benyahia et al. 2006).

The equation used to calculate CH₄ generation at petroleum refining wastewater treatment systems is presented below:

$$\text{Methane} = \text{Flow} \times \text{COD} \times B_o \times \text{MCF}$$

Where:

Flow	= Annual flow treated through anaerobic treatment system (m ³ /year)
COD	= COD loading in wastewater entering anaerobic treatment system (kg/m ³)
B_o	= maximum methane producing potential of industrial wastewater (default value of 0.25 kg CH ₄ /kg COD)
MCF	= methane conversion factor (0.3)

A time series of CH₄ emissions for 1990 through 2009 was developed based on production data from the Energy Information Association (EIA 2010).

Domestic Wastewater N₂O Emission Estimates

N₂O emissions from domestic wastewater (wastewater treatment) were estimated using the IPCC (2006) methodology, including calculations that take into account N removal with sewage sludge, non-consumption and industrial wastewater N, and emissions from advanced centralized wastewater treatment plants:

- In the United States, a certain amount of N is removed with sewage sludge, which is applied to land, incinerated, or landfilled (N_{SLUDGE}). The N disposal into aquatic environments is reduced to account for the sewage sludge application.
- The IPCC methodology uses annual, per capita protein consumption (kg protein/[person-year]). For this inventory, the amount of protein available to be consumed is estimated based on per capita annual food availability data and its protein content, and then adjusts that data using a factor to account for the fraction of protein actually consumed.
- Small amounts of gaseous nitrogen oxides are formed as by-products in the conversion of nitrate to N gas in anoxic biological treatment systems. Approximately 7 grams N₂O is generated per capita per year if wastewater treatment includes intentional nitrification and denitrification (Scheehle and Doorn 2001). Analysis of the 2004 CWNS shows that plants with denitrification as one of their unit operations serve a population of 2.4 million people. Based on an emission factor of 7 grams per capita per year, approximately 21.2 metric tons of additional N₂O may have been emitted via denitrification in 2004. Similar analyses were completed for each year in the Inventory using data from CWNS on the amount of wastewater in centralized systems treated in denitrification units. Plants without intentional nitrification/denitrification are assumed to generate 3.2 grams N₂O per capita

per year.

N₂O emissions from domestic wastewater were estimated using the following methodology:

$$\begin{aligned}
 N_2O_{TOTAL} &= N_2O_{PLANT} + N_2O_{EFFLUENT} \\
 N_2O_{PLANT} &= N_2O_{NIT/DENIT} + N_2O_{WOUT\ NIT/DENIT} \\
 N_2O_{NIT/DENIT} &= [(US_{POPND}) \times EF_2 \times F_{IND-COM}] \times 1/10^9 \\
 N_2O_{WOUT\ NIT/DENIT} &= \{[(US_{POP} \times WWTP) - US_{POPND}] \times F_{IND-COM} \times EF_1\} \times 1/10^9 \\
 N_2O_{EFFLUENT} &= \{[(US_{POP} - (0.9 \times US_{POPND})) \times Protein \times F_{NPR} \times F_{NON-CON} \times F_{IND-COM}) - N_{SLUDGE}] \times EF_3 \times 44/28\} \times 1/10^6
 \end{aligned}$$

where,

N ₂ O _{TOTAL}	= Annual emissions of N ₂ O (Gg)
N ₂ O _{PLANT}	= N ₂ O emissions from centralized wastewater treatment plants (Gg)
N ₂ O _{NIT/DENIT}	= N ₂ O emissions from centralized wastewater treatment plants with nitrification/denitrification (Gg)
N ₂ O _{WOUT NIT/DENIT}	= N ₂ O emissions from centralized wastewater treatment plants without nitrification/denitrification (Gg)
N ₂ O _{EFFLUENT}	= N ₂ O emissions from wastewater effluent discharged to aquatic environments (Gg)
US _{POP}	= U.S. population
US _{POPND}	= U.S. population that is served by biological denitrification (from CWNS)
WWTP	= Fraction of population using WWTP (as opposed to septic systems)
EF ₁	= Emission factor (3.2 g N ₂ O/person-year) – plant with no intentional denitrification
EF ₂	= Emission factor (7 g N ₂ O/person-year) – plant with intentional denitrification
Protein	= Annual per capita protein consumption (kg/person/year)
F _{NPR}	= Fraction of N in protein, default = 0.16 (kg N/kg protein)
F _{NON-CON}	= Factor for non-consumed protein added to wastewater (1.4)
F _{IND-COM}	= Factor for industrial and commercial co-discharged protein into the sewer system (1.25)
N _{SLUDGE}	= N removed with sludge, kg N/yr
EF ₃	= Emission factor (0.005 kg N ₂ O -N/kg sewage-N produced) – from effluent
0.9	= Amount of nitrogen removed by denitrification systems
44/28	= Molecular weight ratio of N ₂ O to N ₂

U.S. population data were taken from the U.S. Census Bureau International Database (U.S. Census 2010) and include the populations of the United States, American Samoa, Guam, Northern Mariana Islands, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands. The fraction of the U.S. population using wastewater treatment plants is based on data from the 1989, 1991, 1993, 1995, 1997, 1999, 2001, 2003, 2005, 2007, and 2009 American Housing Survey (U.S. Census 2009). Data for intervening years were obtained by linear interpolation. The emission factor (EF₁) used to estimate emissions from wastewater treatment was taken from IPCC (2006). Data on annual per capita protein intake were provided by U.S. Department of Agriculture Economic Research Service (USDA 2009). Protein consumption data for 2005 through 2009 were extrapolated from data for 1990 through 2004. Table 8-14 presents the data for U.S. population and average protein intake. An emission factor to estimate emissions from effluent (EF₃) has not been specifically estimated for the United States, thus the default IPCC value (0.005 kg N₂O-N/kg sewage-N produced) was applied. The fraction of N in protein (0.16 kg N/kg protein) was also obtained from IPCC (2006). The factor for non-consumed protein and the factor for industrial and commercial co-discharged protein were obtained from IPCC (2006). Sludge generation was obtained from EPA (1999) for 1988, 1996, and 1998 and from Beecher et al. (2007) for 2004. Intervening years were interpolated, and estimates for 2005 through 2009 were forecasted from the rest of the time series. An estimate for the N removed as sludge (N_{SLUDGE}) was obtained by determining the amount of sludge disposed by incineration, by land application (agriculture or other), through surface disposal, in landfills, or through ocean dumping. In 2009, 271 Gg N was removed with sludge.

Table 8-14. U.S. Population (Millions), Available Protein (kg/person-year), and Protein Consumed (kg/person-year)

Year	Population	Available Protein	Protein Consumed
1990	254	38.7	29.6

2000	286	41.3	31.6
2005	300	41.7	32.1
2006	303	41.9	32.1
2007	306	42.1	32.2
2008	309	42.2	32.4
2009	311	42.4	32.5

Source: U.S. Census Bureau 2010, USDA 2009.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The overall uncertainty associated with both the 2009 CH₄ and N₂O emission estimates from wastewater treatment and discharge was calculated using the IPCC Good Practice Guidance Tier 2 methodology (2000). Uncertainty associated with the parameters used to estimate CH₄ emissions include that of numerous input variables used to model emissions from domestic wastewater, and wastewater from pulp and paper manufacture, meat and poultry processing, fruits and vegetable processing, ethanol production, and petroleum refining. Uncertainty associated with the parameters used to estimate N₂O emissions include that of sewage sludge disposal, total U.S. population, average protein consumed per person, fraction of N in protein, non-consumption nitrogen factor, emission factors per capita and per mass of sewage-N, and for the percentage of total population using centralized wastewater treatment plants.

The results of this Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 8-15. CH₄ emissions from wastewater treatment were estimated to be between 15.3 and 35.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level (or in 19 out of 20 Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulations). This indicates a range of approximately 37 percent below to 47 percent above the 2009 emissions estimate of 24.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. N₂O emissions from wastewater treatment were estimated to be between 1.2 and 9.7 Tg CO₂ Eq., which indicates a range of approximately 76 percent below to 93 percent above the actual 2009 emissions estimate of 5.0 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 8-15. Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ Emissions from Wastewater Treatment (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Wastewater Treatment	CH₄	24.5	15.3	35.9	-37%	+47%
Domestic	CH ₄	16.0	7.6	26.6	-52%	+66%
Industrial	CH ₄	8.5	5.1	13.1	-41%	+54%
Wastewater Treatment	N₂O	5.0	1.2	9.7	-76%	+93%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A QA/QC analysis was performed on activity data, documentation, and emission calculations. This effort included a Tier 1 analysis, including the following checks:

- Checked for transcription errors in data input;
- Ensured references were specified for all activity data used in the calculations;
- Checked a sample of each emission calculation used for the source category;
- Checked that parameter and emission units were correctly recorded and that appropriate conversion factors were used;
- Checked for temporal consistency in time series input data for each portion of the source category;
- Confirmed that estimates were calculated and reported for all portions of the source category and for all years;
- Investigated data gaps that affected emissions estimates trends; and

- Compared estimates to previous estimates to identify significant changes.

All transcription errors identified were corrected. The QA/QC analysis did not reveal any systemic inaccuracies or incorrect input values.

Planned Improvements Discussion

The methodology to estimate CH₄ emissions from domestic wastewater treatment currently utilizes estimates for the percentage of centrally treated wastewater that is treated by aerobic systems and anaerobic systems. These data come from the 1992, 1996, 2000, and 2004 CWNS. The question of whether activity data for wastewater treatment systems are sufficient across the timeseries to further differentiate aerobic systems with the potential to generate small amounts of CH₄ (aerobic lagoons) versus other types of aerobic systems, and to differentiate between anaerobic systems to allow for the use of different MCFs for different types of anaerobic treatment systems, continues to be explored. Recently available CWNS data for 2008 also is being evaluated for incorporation into the inventory. Due to significant changes in format, this dataset was unable to be included in the domestic wastewater calculations for the current Inventory. However, EPA continues to evaluate ways to incorporate the updated data into future years of the Inventory.

Currently, it is assumed that all aerobic systems are well managed and produce no CH₄ and that all anaerobic systems have an MCF of 0.8. Efforts to obtain better data reflecting emissions from various types of municipal treatment systems are currently being pursued.

A review of other industrial wastewater treatment sources for those industries believed to discharge significant loads of BOD and COD has been ongoing. Food processing industries have the highest potential for CH₄ generation due to the waste characteristics generated, and the greater likelihood to treat the wastes anaerobically. However, in all cases there is dated information available on U.S. treatment operations for these industries. A review of the organic chemicals industry was conducted in April 2010, during which only 1987 data was readily identified. It was concluded that current industry-level treatment system information is very difficult to obtain, as is time series data. Based on the 1987 data, emissions from this source are small and are not a likely industry category for significant CH₄ emissions. Therefore, this industry has not been included in the Inventory and there are no near future plans to do so. Similarly, the seafood processing industry was reviewed to estimate its potential to generate CH₄. Due to minimal anaerobic wastewater treatment operations at processing facilities, this industry was not selected for inclusion in the Inventory. Other industries will be reviewed as necessary for inclusion in future years of the Inventory.

Available data will be reviewed regarding anaerobic treatment at petroleum refineries. If necessary, the %TA for this industry will be revised accordingly. Currently, all petroleum plants are assumed to have anaerobic treatment.

With respect to estimating N₂O emissions, the default emission factor for indirect N₂O from wastewater effluent and direct N₂O from centralized wastewater treatment facilities has a high uncertainty. Current research is being conducted by the Water Environment Research Foundation (WERF) to measure N₂O emissions from municipal treatment systems. Such data will be reviewed as they are available to determine if a country-specific N₂O emission factor can or should be developed, or if alternate emission factors should be used. EPA expects WERF to publish a final N₂O generation report by the end of 2011. In addition, WERF recently conducted a study of greenhouse gas emissions from septic systems located in California. This study concluded that the emission rate for methane and nitrous oxide were 10.7 and 0.20 g/capita-d, respectively. EPA is currently reviewing the results of this study to determine if the systems evaluated are representative of U.S. operations and if a country-specific factor for septic systems can be introduced into the inventory. The effect would be to lower current estimates of CH₄ emissions by about half, and to include N₂O emission estimates where previously none were calculated. In addition, more investigation of new study results will be used to evaluate the method used to calculate N₂O emissions associated with effluent and whether septic systems are appropriately included in the calculation.

In addition, the estimate of N entering municipal treatment systems is under review. The factor that accounts for non-sewage N in wastewater (bath, laundry, kitchen, industrial components) also has a high uncertainty. Obtaining data on the changes in average influent N concentrations to centralized treatment systems over the time series would improve the estimate of total N entering the system, which would reduce or eliminate the need for other factors for non-consumed protein or industrial flow. The dataset previously provided by the National Association of Clean Water Agencies (NACWA) was reviewed to determine if it was representative of the larger population of centralized treatment plants for potential inclusion into the inventory. However, this limited dataset was not

representative of the number of systems by state or the service populations served in the United States, and therefore could not be incorporated into the inventory methodology. Additional data sources will continue to be researched with the goal of improving the uncertainty of the estimate of N entering municipal treatment systems.

8.3. *Composting (IPCC Source Category 6D)*

Composting of organic waste, such as food waste, garden (yard) and park waste, and sludge, is common in the United States. Advantages of composting include reduced volume in the waste material, stabilization of the waste, and destruction of pathogens in the waste material. The end products of composting, depending on its quality, can be recycled as fertilizer and soil amendment, or be disposed in a landfill.

Composting is an aerobic process and a large fraction of the degradable organic carbon in the waste material is converted into carbon dioxide (CO₂). Methane (CH₄) is formed in anaerobic sections of the compost, but it is oxidized to a large extent in the aerobic sections of the compost. Anaerobic sections are created in composting piles when there is excessive moisture or inadequate aeration (or mixing) of the compost pile. The estimated CH₄ released into the atmosphere ranges from less than 1 percent to a few percent of the initial C content in the material (IPCC 2006). Composting can also produce nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions. The range of the estimated emissions varies from less than 0.5 percent to 5 percent of the initial nitrogen content of the material (IPCC 2006).

E_i	= CH ₄ or N ₂ O emissions from composting, Gg CH ₄ or N ₂ O,
M	= mass of organic waste composted in Gg,
EF_i	= emission factor for composting, 4 g CH ₄ /kg of waste treated (wet basis) and 0.3 g N ₂ O/kg of waste treated (wet basis), and
i	= designates either CH ₄ or N ₂ O.

Estimates of the quantity of waste composted (M) are presented in Table 8-18. Estimates of the quantity composted for 1990 and 1995 were taken from the *Characterization of Municipal Solid Waste in the United States: 1996 Update* (Franklin Associates 1997); estimates of the quantity composted for 2000, 2005, 2006, 2007, and 2008 were taken from EPA's *Municipal Solid Waste In The United States: 2008 Facts and Figures* (EPA 2009); estimates of the quantity composted for 2009 were calculated using the 2008 quantity composted.

Table 8-18: U.S. Waste Composted (Gg)

Activity	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Waste Composted	3,810	14,923	18,643	18,852	19,695	20,049	19,857

Source: Franklin Associates 1997 and EPA 2009.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The estimated uncertainty from the 2006 IPCC Guidelines is ± 50 percent for the Tier 1 methodology. Emissions from composting in 2009 were estimated to be between 1.8 and 5.3 Tg CO₂ Eq., which indicates a range of 50 percent below to 50 percent above the actual 2009 emission estimate of 3.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (see Table 8-19).

Table 8-19 : Tier 1 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for Emissions from Composting (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2009 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)			
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Composting	CH ₄ , N ₂ O	3.5	1.8	5.3	-50%	+50%

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

For future Inventories, additional efforts will be made to improve the estimates of CH₄ and N₂O emissions from composting. For example, a literature search may be conducted to determine if emission factors specific to various composting systems and composted materials are available.

8.4. Waste Sources of Indirect Greenhouse Gases

In addition to the main greenhouse gases addressed above, waste generating and handling processes are also sources of indirect greenhouse gas emissions. Total emissions of NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs from waste sources for the years 1990 through 2009 are provided in Table 8-20.

Table 8-20: Emissions of NO_x, CO, and NMVOC from Waste (Gg)

Gas/Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
NO_x	+	2	2	2	2	2	2
Landfills	+	2	2	2	2	2	2
Wastewater Treatment	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Miscellaneous ^a	+	+	+	+	+	+	0
CO	1	8	7	7	7	7	7
Landfills	1	7	6	6	6	6	6
Wastewater Treatment	+	1	+	+	+	+	+
Miscellaneous ^a	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
NMVOCs	673	119	114	113	111	109	76
Wastewater Treatment	57	51	49	49	48	47	33
Miscellaneous ^a	557	46	43	43	42	41	29
Landfills	58	22	22	21	21	21	14

^a Miscellaneous includes TSDFs (Treatment, Storage, and Disposal Facilities under the Resource Conservation and Recovery Act [42 U.S.C. § 6924, SWDA § 3004]) and other waste categories.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg.

Methodology

These emission estimates were obtained from preliminary data (EPA 2010, EPA 2009), and disaggregated based on EPA (2003), which, in its final iteration, will be published on the National Emission Inventory (NEI) Air Pollutant Emission Trends web site. Emission estimates of these gases were provided by sector, using a “top down” estimating procedure—emissions were calculated either for individual sources or for many sources combined, using basic activity data (e.g., the amount of raw material processed) as an indicator of emissions. National activity data were collected for individual source categories from various agencies. Depending on the source category, these basic activity data may include data on production, fuel deliveries, raw material processed, etc.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

No quantitative estimates of uncertainty were calculated for this source category. Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2009.

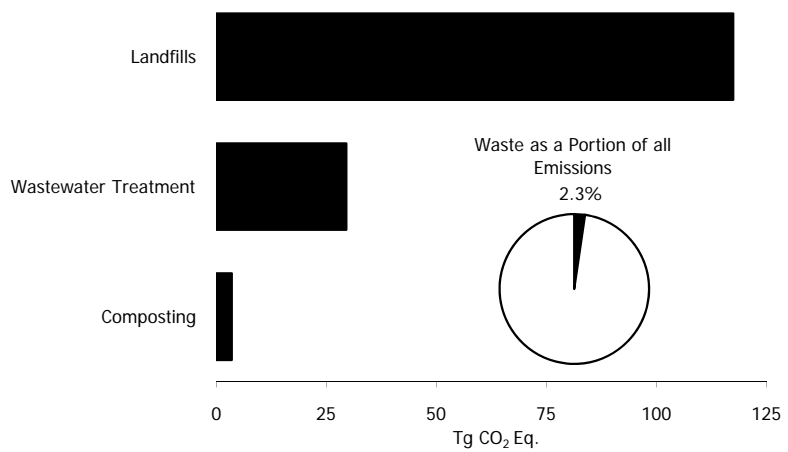


Figure 8-1: 2009 Waste Chapter Greenhouse Gas Sources

9. Other

The United States does not report any greenhouse gas emissions under the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) “Other” sector.

10. Recalculations and Improvements

Each year, emission and sink estimates are recalculated and revised for all years in the Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks, as attempts are made to improve both the analyses themselves, through the use of better methods or data, and the overall usefulness of the report. In this effort, the United States follows the 2006 IPCC Guidelines (IPCC 2006), which states, “Both methodological changes and refinements over time are an essential part of improving inventory quality. It is *good practice* to change or refine methods” when: available data have changed; the previously used method is not consistent with the IPCC guidelines for that category; a category has become key; the previously used method is insufficient to reflect mitigation activities in a transparent manner; the capacity for inventory preparation has increased; new inventory methods become available; and for correction of errors.”

The results of all methodological changes and historical data updates are presented in this section; detailed descriptions of each recalculation are contained within each source’s description found in this report, if applicable. Table 10-1 summarizes the quantitative effect of these changes on U.S. greenhouse gas emissions and Table 10-2 summarizes the quantitative effect on net CO₂ flux to the atmosphere, both relative to the previously published U.S. Inventory (i.e., the 1990 through 2008 report). These tables present the magnitude of these changes in units of teragrams of carbon dioxide equivalent (Tg CO₂ Eq.).

The Recalculations Discussion section of each source presents the details of each recalculation. In general, when methodological changes have been implemented, the entire time series (i.e., 1990 through 2008) has been recalculated to reflect the change, per IPCC (2006). Changes in historical data are generally the result of changes in statistical data supplied by other agencies.

The following emission sources, which are listed in descending order of absolute average annual change in emissions between 1990 and 2008, underwent some of the most important methodological and historical data changes. A brief summary of the recalculations and/or improvements undertaken is provided for each emission source.

- *Natural Gas Systems (CH₄)*. For the current Inventory, methodologies for gas well cleanups and condensate storage tanks were revised, and new data sources for centrifugal compressors with wet seals, unconventional gas well completions, and unconventional gas well workovers were used, relative to the previous Inventory. The net effect of these changes was an increase in total CH₄ emissions from natural gas systems of between 46.5 and 119.7 percent each year between 1990 and 2008, resulting in an overall annual average increase of 79.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (66.4 percent). The natural gas production segment accounted for the largest increases, largely due to the methodological changes to gas well cleanups and the addition of unconventional gas well completions and workovers.
- *Landfills (CH₄)*. Changes in CH₄ emissions from Landfills relative to the previous Inventory resulted from improvements made to better associate flares with the correct landfills or Landfill Gas to Energy projects across the nation. In addition, steps were also taken to further characterize the food waste decay rate. A weighted component-specific decay rate for food waste of 0.156 yr⁻¹ was used in the current Inventory, replacing the previous Inventory’s default food waste decay rate of 0.185 yr⁻¹. These revisions impacted emission estimates for the entire time series and resulted in an average annual decrease of 8.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (6.5 percent) in CH₄ emissions from Landfills for the period 1990 through 2008.
- *Manure Management (CH₄)*. Changes in CH₄ emissions from Manure Management relative to the previous Inventory resulted from several updates. Volatile solid production rates for all animal types were updated based on data from the USDA and EPA’s Cattle Enteric Fermentation Model. In addition, USDA data on swine were re-categorized, which changed the typical animal mass for two categories. These changes impacted emission estimates for the entire time series and resulted in an average annual increase of 3.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (9.4 percent) in CH₄ emissions from Manure Management across the entire time series relative to the previous Inventory.
- *Agricultural Soil Management (N₂O)*. Changes in N₂O emissions from Agricultural Soil Management relative to the previous Inventory resulted from methodological changes for estimating grassland areas and livestock manure nitrogen. These recalculations have opposing effects on emissions; grassland area was reduced, resulting in lower emissions, and livestock manure nitrogen increased, resulting in higher emissions. These changes affected the entire time series, resulting in an average annual reduction in N₂O emissions of 3.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1.5 percent) for the period 1990 through 2008 relative to the previous Inventory.

- *Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production (CO₂)*. A calculation error in the previous Inventory regarding coal tar production and coke breeze production estimates was corrected for the current Inventory, resulting in an average annual decrease in CO₂ emissions from Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production of 2.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (2.7 percent) for the period 1990 through 2008.
- *Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels (CO₂)*. Updates to the EIA Manufacturer's Energy Consumption Survey (MECS) for 2006 resulted in changes to CO₂ emissions from Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels for 2003 through 2008 relative to the previous Inventory. Adjustments were made to the entire MECS time series to remove scrap tire consumption for use as a fuel, which is associated with the Waste Incineration chapter. In addition, emissions from synthetic rubber were revised across the entire time series. These changes impacted emission estimates from 1990 through 2008 resulting in an average annual decrease in CO₂ emissions of 1.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1.0 percent) across the entire time series.
- *Petroleum Systems (CH₄)*. Well completion venting, well drilling, and offshore platform activity factors were updated relative to the previous Inventory from existing data sources from 1990 onward, and the emission factor for venting from fixed roof storage tanks in the crude oil production segment was increased to reflect the occurrence of gas venting through storage tanks. These changes affected the entire time series from Petroleum Systems, resulting in an average annual increase in CH₄ emissions of 1.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (4.3 percent) for the period 1990 through 2008 relative to the previous report.
- *Nitric Acid Production (N₂O)*. Changes in N₂O emission from Nitric Acid Production relative to the previous Inventory resulted from updated information on abatement technologies in use at production facilities and revised production data from the U.S. Census Bureau. These changes resulted in an average annual decrease in N₂O emissions of 1.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (6.7 percent) across the entire time series relative to the previous report.
- *Electrical Transmission and Distribution (SF₆)*. SF₆ emission estimates for the period 1990 through 2008 were updated relative to the previous Inventory based on (1) new data from EPA's SF₆ Emission Reduction Partnership; (2) revisions to interpolated and extrapolated non-reported Partner data; and (3) a correction made to 2004 transmission mile data for a large Partnership utility that had been interpreted incorrectly from the UDI database in previous years. In addition, the method for estimating potential emissions from the sector was updated for the current Inventory to assume that all SF₆ purchased by equipment manufacturers is either emitted or sent to utilities. These changes affected the entire time series, resulting in an average annual increase of 1.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (6.6 percent) for the period 1990 through 2008 relative to the previous report.
- *Forestland Remaining Forestland (C Sink)*. Changes to the estimated carbon stored in Forestland Remaining Forestland stemmed from recent additions to the Forest Inventory and Analysis Database (FIADB). Newer annual inventory data for most states including Oklahoma, California, Oregon, and Washington were added. Some older periodic inventories for some southern states were also updated. These changes resulted in an average annual increase in carbon stored in forestland of 6.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (2.4 percent) for the period 1990 through 2008 relative to the previous inventory report.

Table 10-1: Revisions to U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008
CO₂	(1.1)	(2.2)	5.3	3.9	(0.2)	0.2
Fossil Fuel Combustion	2.7	1.5	(0.1)	0.3	(0.3)	(6.8)
Electricity Generation	+	+	+	NC	+	(2.6)
Transportation	0.2	+	1.3	1.4	0.2	4.7
Industrial	1.0	(1.1)	(2.5)	(2.5)	(0.2)	(16.4)
Residential	(0.8)	(0.5)	(0.5)	(0.5)	0.7	5.5
Commercial	2.3	3.2	2.3	2.6	2.0	4.7
U.S. Territories	NC	NC	(0.7)	(0.7)	(3.0)	(2.7)
Non-Energy Use of Fuels	(1.0)	(1.2)	6.9	4.2	1.9	6.8
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical						
Coke Production	(3.0)	(2.2)	(1.8)	(1.8)	(1.8)	(3.0)
Natural Gas Systems	0.3	0.5	0.4	1.2	0.2	2.9
Cement Production	NC	(0.8)	(0.7)	(0.8)	(0.7)	(0.6)
Incineration of Waste	(0.1)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.6)	(1.0)

Ammonia Production and Urea Consumption	NC	NC	NC	NC	0.1	0.2
Lime Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Cropland Remaining Cropland	NC	NC	NC	NC	(0.1)	1.0
Limestone and Dolomite Use	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	(0.3)
Soda Ash Production and Consumption	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Aluminum Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Petrochemical Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	NC	NC	NC	+	NC	NC
Titanium Dioxide Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Ferroalloy Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	0.1
Phosphoric Acid Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	+
Zinc Production	(0.3)	(0.1)	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8
Lead Production	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Petroleum Systems	+	+	+	+	+	+
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
<i>Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry</i>						
<i>(Sink)^a</i>	47.9	87.7	(106.1)	(105.2)	(105.5)	(100.1)
<i>Biomass - Wood^a</i>	NC	NC	NC	(4.0)	(4.1)	(0.1)
<i>International Bunker Fuels^a</i>	+	+	(0.8)	(0.7)	0.6	(1.5)
<i>Biomass - Ethanol^a</i>	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.7	1.4
CH₄	61.5	73.9	78.3	103.9	95.4	109.1
Natural Gas Systems	60.3	78.6	86.8	114.6	105.7	115.4
Enteric Fermentation	(0.3)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.2)
Landfills	(1.9)	(9.0)	(13.1)	(15.3)	(15.2)	(10.4)
Coal Mining	NC	NC	NC	+	(0.2)	(0.5)
Manure Management	2.4	3.8	4.3	4.4	4.9	4.4
Petroleum Systems	1.5	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.1
Wastewater Treatment	+	+	+	+	+	0.2
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land	+	+	+	+	+	+
Rice Cultivation	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Stationary Combustion	+	+	+	+	+	(0.2)
Abandoned Underground Coal Mines	NC	NC	+	(0.1)	(0.1)	+
Mobile Combustion	+	+	+	+	+	+
Composting	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	+
Petrochemical Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical						
Coke Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	(0.5)	(0.6)	(0.7)	(0.7)	(0.7)	(0.7)
Ferroalloy Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Incineration of Waste	NC	NC	NC	NC	+	+
<i>International Bunker Fuels^a</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+
N₂O	(7.1)	(4.5)	(5.4)	(3.1)	(2.6)	(7.4)
Agricultural Soil Management	(5.7)	(3.3)	(4.5)	(2.3)	(1.6)	(5.1)
Mobile Combustion	+	+	+	+	+	+
Manure Management	0.1	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8
Nitric Acid Production	(1.2)	(1.3)	(1.1)	(1.1)	(1.3)	(2.6)
Stationary Combustion	+	+	+	(0.1)	(0.1)	+
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land	+	+	+	+	+	+
Wastewater Treatment	+	+	+	+	+	+
N ₂ O from Product Uses	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Adipic Acid Production	+	+	NC	NC	NC	NC
Composting	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	+
Settlements Remaining Settlements	NC	NC	NC	NC	+	(0.1)
Incineration of Waste	NC	NC	NC	NC	+	+

Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	(0.3)	(0.4)	(0.4)	(0.4)	(0.4)	(0.4)
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	+
<i>International Bunker Fuels^a</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+
HFCs	NC	+	1.0	1.6	2.1	2.5
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	NC	+	1.0	1.6	2.1	2.5
HCFC-22 Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Semiconductor Manufacture	NC	NC	NC	NC	+	+
PFCs	NC	NC	NC	NC	+	+
Semiconductor Manufacture	NC	NC	NC	NC	+	+
Aluminum Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
SF₆	1.8	1.0	1.2	0.9	0.5	+
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	1.8	1.0	1.2	0.9	0.5	0.3
Magnesium Production and Processing	NC	NC	+	+	+	(0.1)
Semiconductor Manufacture	NC	NC	NC	NC	+	(0.2)
Net Change in Total Emissions^b	55.0	68.2	80.3	107.1	95.3	104.4
Percent Change	0.9%	1.0%	1.1%	1.5%	1.3%	1.5%

+ Absolute value does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq. or 0.05 percent.

Parentheses indicate negative values

NC (No Change)

^a Not included in emissions total.

^b Excludes net CO₂ flux from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry, and emissions from International Bunker Fuels.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 10-2: Revisions to Net Flux of CO₂ to the Atmosphere from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Component: Net CO₂ Flux From Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry	1990	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land	48.8	89.4	(105.0)	(105.0)	(105.0)	(99.1)
Cropland Remaining Cropland	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Land Converted to Cropland	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Grassland Remaining Grassland	(0.1)	+	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2
Land Converted to Grassland	+	+	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4
Settlements Remaining Settlements	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Other	(0.7)	(1.9)	(1.4)	(0.6)	(1.1)	(1.7)
Net Change in Total Flux	47.9	87.7	(106.1)	(105.2)	(105.5)	(100.1)
Percent Change	5.3%	13.2%	(11.2%)	(11.0%)	(11.0%)	(10.6%)

NC (No Change)

Note: Numbers in parentheses indicate a decrease in estimated net flux of CO₂ to the atmosphere, or an increase in net sequestration.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

+ Absolute value does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq. or 0.05 percent.

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